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SEVENTH EDITION



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PREFACE

(TO FIRST EDITION).

THE teaching of Modern History, whether English, European, American or Colonial, has long been handicapped in England by the non-existence of a carefully produced historical atlas, covering the whole ground and issued at a price which will place it within the reach of all schools. This gap the present work endeavours to fill, as Putzger's excellent work fills it in Germany. No pains have been spared to achieve this end, and every map has been specially drawn and specially engraved.

It is claimed that this work is distinguished from other historical Atlases, whether English or foreign, by several features

(1) In the first place, great emphasis is throughout placed upon the *physical basis* of historical geography. Not only are mountain hachures inserted on all politically coloured maps of sufficiently large scale, but a series of physical maps has been included, carefully designed so as to show the build of all the principal areas of historical importance. The periods illustrated by these maps are those in which the political divisions were sufficiently simple to be adequately shown by red lines. These physical maps have been so placed as to be capable of being used in conjunction with groups of other maps of the same area, and it is hoped that in this way the influence of the build of a country upon its history will be made readily manifest to the student.

(2) As nothing tends to make a map more confusing, and therefore less instructive to the young student, than a multiplicity of names, great care has been taken to insert only those names which are likely to be useful to the student at the period dealt with. The Editor has generally thought it better to risk including too few rather than too many names.

(3) As the Atlas is intended to be used by young people of the greatest colonising nation in history, special attention has been devoted to Indian, American, and Colonial history, and it is believed not merely that no *small* atlas, but no *large* atlas of general history, contains so careful and full a treatment of these subjects as will be found in the fourth section of this book. The series of maps showing the progress in exploration and settlement of the extra-European world will, it is hoped, prove both instructive and stimulating to the imagination.

(4) At the same time the United Kingdom has received especially full treatment, and some of the maps contained in the book deal with aspects of

English History which have never been treated in the same way in similar works.

(5) The Introduction contains a series of comments upon each of the maps in turn, which it is hoped will be of assistance to the teacher. A number of supplementary sketch maps, illustrating special points, have been inserted in the Introduction, together with a selection of battle-plans. In the difficult task of selecting the battles to be thus illustrated, the Editor has been chiefly guided by the needs of teaching. The teacher is seldom able to find time for the detailed study of more than a few battles during the school course, and it is hoped that those which have been chosen include all or nearly all those which the majority of English teachers are accustomed to treat in detail.

A larger edition, containing a number of additional maps, for the use of teachers and more advanced students, is in preparation and will be published in the early summer of 1911*. To this edition a detailed Index will be added.

It is the hope of the Editor and Publishers that this Atlas will form a real aid in the study and teaching of history. They have spared no pains to secure this end. But as no book can hope to attain perfection at its first putting forth, they will be genuinely grateful to all users of the Atlas who will direct their attention to the mistakes of omission or commission which, despite their care, are sure to exist, or who will help them with suggestions for its improvement in a later edition.

In view of the vastness of its range, it is obvious that the Atlas does not and cannot claim to be based upon original research at more than a few points. The Editor's object has been to select and adapt for teaching purposes the best results of modern scholarship in this field, and he has drawn largely upon all the standard historical Atlases of England, France, Germany, and America, especially those of Schrader, Droysen, Spruner-Menke and Poole, as well as upon books and monographs far too numerous to be named here. He has profited also by the advice and counsel of many friends. But beyond all other debts is that which he owes to Mr George Philip, F.R.G.S., who has placed all his cartographical skill unstintingly at his command, and without whose patience, ingenuity and knowledge the atlas would probably never have been compiled. Mr Philip has been good enough to contribute the admirable series of maps of the world showing the progress of exploration and settlement, which will be found to be one of the most valuable features of the book.

Liverpool, July, 1910.

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INTRODUCTION.

Note—Throughout this Introduction references to the coloured plates are given in Arabic numerals, thus, **Plate 1, 2, 3**, with the addition of letters *a, b, c*, where there are more than one map on the same plate. References to the maps engraved in the text are given in Roman numerals thus, *Fig 1, ii, iii*.

SECTION I.—GENERAL MAPS OF EUROPE. PLATES 1—10.

This series of maps shows the general development of Europe and the broad changes of its political distribution

Europe on the Eve of the Barbarian Irruptions, c. 395 A.D. (Plate 1).—The first map shows the Roman Empire on the eve of its downfall, together with part of its eastern rival, the Persian Empire, and the barbarian tribes beyond. The red line may be said to mark the limits of the civilised world. Only a rough indication of the administrative divisions of the Empire is given, owing to the small scale of the map, for further detail see the "Oxford Historical Atlas," Plate I. The broad physical features brought out in the map help to explain the course of events. (i) The Carpathians would, obviously, have formed the best natural frontier for the Empire, but this had been lost when Dacia (mod Hungary) was abandoned owing to the attacks of the barbarians, c. 255 A.D. (the name of Dacia was later applied to a region south of the Danube, as shown in the map). The Empire was thus left without a good natural frontier towards the north, except on the line of the Alps. (ii) The weakest spots on the northern frontier, and therefore the chief seats of Roman armies, are (a) the Rhine, soon to be attacked by the Franks, Allemanni and Suevi, Burgundians and Vandals, (b) the lower Danube, especially exposed to the Visigoths, Ostrogoths and other East-German tribes, (c) the low eastern shore of Britain and northern shore of Gaul, exposed to the piratical raids of the North Sea tribes. (iii) The strong strategic position of Constantinople should be noticed. It is so placed as to protect Asia Minor, Syria and Egypt from invaders coming from the north. Those invaders who crossed the Danube, therefore, successively passed on through Illyricum to Italy and the West, and during the period of the Germanic invasions the eastern part of the Empire was, in comparison with the west, left almost intact. Protected on the east and south by the deserts of Syria, Arabia and Africa, it seemed to be endangered only in Mesopotamia, where the close neighbourhood of the Persian Empire gave rise to intermittent war.

Europe in 476 and 520 (Plate 2).—The two maps on this plate show two stages in the settlement of the barbarians within the western half of the Empire. These maps should be used in conjunction with Plates 1 and 3. Further maps illustrating the same period will be found in the Student's Edition of this Atlas.

2 (a) Driven forward by the Huns, the Visigoths crossed the Danube into the Balkan Peninsula and thence through Illyricum into Italy, where they sacked Rome. Thence, with a commission from the Emperor, they passed into southern Gaul and Spain. Meanwhile the Burgundians, crossing the Rhine, had settled in S.E. Gaul, whence they were never dislodged, and the Vandals and Suevi coming by the same route, overran Spain, where the Visigoths found them. The Suevi were penned into N.W. Spain, while the Vandals were driven over the Straits of Gibraltar into the Roman province of Africa, where they founded a kingdom controlling the Western Mediterranean. In the north of Gaul, the numerous tribes of the Franks occupied the valleys of the Scheldt and Moselle, and by 450 only the valley of the Seine remained Roman. The sudden collapse of the Roman power in the western provinces necessitated the withdrawal of Roman armies from Britain, whose south-east coast now began to be settled by pagan Saxons and Angles. As yet no barbarian nation had settled in Italy, but the feeble Emperor of the West, who nominally ruled from Ravenna, was dependent for his existence upon a barbarian army. In 476 A.D. Odoacer, then general of this army, suppressed the Western Empire, and established a kingdom in Italy, owing nominal allegiance to the Emperor at Constantinople. Thus the whole of the Western Empire, except the Seine valley, had passed into the hands of the German barbarians by 476.

2 (b) Meanwhile, the Ostrogoths had followed the Visigoths over the Danube, and after being settled for a time in Illyricum, passed under Theodoric into Italy, where they overthrew Odoacer (493) and established a powerful and well-governed, though short-lived empire, which in the first years of the sixth century was the most formidable power of the West. Its chief rival was the growing power of the Franks. Their divided tribes were united under Clovis (481-511), who subdued the Roman district in N. Gaul (486), reduced the Allemanni to submission (495-6), and conquered the great province of Aquitaine from the Visigoths (507). Thus by about 520 five principal barbarian states divided the western half of the Roman Empire between them: the Ostrogoths, the Franks, the Visigoths, the Vandals, and the Burgundians. Of these, however, only the Frankish and Burgundian kingdoms were to survive. During the next two centuries the other three all disappeared from the map. The Eastern Empire, showing a new vigour under Justinian (528-565), destroyed the Vandal kingdom in Africa (533-4) and the Ostrogothic kingdom in Italy (535-552), and these countries became again part of the Empire. But the Empire was not strong enough to maintain these conquests. The Mongolian Avars occupied the country north of the Danube (c. 570), finally settling in modern Hungary, and constantly attacked the Empire. The Slavonic tribes which had taken the place of the Germans who had fallen upon the Empire, and now occupied the plains as far west as the Elbe, together with Bohemia and Illyricum, also pressed into the Balkan peninsula (c. 590), of which they gradually occupied the greater part. The Lombards, a German tribe, pressed down into Italy (568), and though they were never able to conquer it entirely, reduced it to confusion (see Plate 14). At a later date, the Mongol tribe of Bulgarians also crossed the Danube and established a state in the region of modern Bulgaria (679). In addition to the attacks of these tribes, the Eastern Empire had to wage constant wars against the Persians. Hitherto it had kept its Asiatic and African lands intact. In the seventh century it was for the first time threatened

also from the South, where the Arabs, united by the preaching of Mohammed, simultaneously attacked the East-Roman and the Persian Empires, subjugated the latter completely, and tore from the former the great provinces of Syria (634) and Egypt (640). During the next century the Saracens or Arabs extended their Empire eastwards almost to the Indus (see Plate 3b), and westwards along the north coast of Africa to Spain, where they destroyed the Visigothic kingdom (711), leaving only a few tiny independent Christian states among the mountains of N. Spain, and pressed onwards into Gaul. Here they came in conflict with the Franks. The Frankish Empire was still the greatest of the Western Powers, but during the seventh century it had been deeply disorganised and divided, and if it had not been reunited under the vigorous Carolingian line, it would have fallen before the Saracens. Their advance was stopped at Tours (732), and the fortunes of the Western World were thus left to rest upon the Franks.

Europe in the Age of Charlemagne (Plate 3).—Three great powers at the beginning of the ninth century divided the Western World between them. I. The Frankish Empire under Charlemagne included, with the exception of England, the whole of the lands occupied by the Germans within and without the ancient limits of the Empire, and almost the whole of Latin Christendom. Charlemagne's task was two-fold, (a) to bring all the German lands under one rule, this he did by the conquest of the Saxons (775-85), the effective subjugation of the semi-independent Bavarians (788), and the conquest of the Lombard Kingdom in Italy (774), (b) to extend the frontiers of Christendom; this he did by winning the Spanish March from the Saracens, thus beginning the advance of the Christian powers in Spain (785), by beating back the Mongolian Avars (796-9), and by setting up a series of border provinces against the Slavonic tribes, thus beginning the slow process of German advance eastwards. In effect, however, the limit of the German lands at the end of his reign was the Elbe. The Slavonic tribes were still to give much trouble under Charlemagne's weaker successors, the Mongolian Magyars (who replaced the Avars in Hungary, c. 900) were to give more, and the unsubdued and still pagan Scandinavians most of all, plundering and ravaging all the coast line from the Elbe southwards, on both sides of the North Sea. Nevertheless, Charlemagne's Empire gave a real basis of unity to the nascent civilisation of the Germanised west, and this was recognized by the revival of the Western Roman Empire in his person, 800 A.D. II. The Eastern Empire was now much reduced in extent. In the west it held only the islands and some patches of Italian coast, in the Balkan Peninsula the Slavs and the Bulgarians had deprived it of all the upland country, leaving only Thrace and some coastal strips, and its main strength rested upon the solid block of Asia Minor. III. The Saracen Empire was now at the height of its civilisation. But it was already broken into two parts, Spain under the Ommeyyads constituting a separate caliphate since 750, and though the Saracens were at intervals dangerous in Italy and the Western Mediterranean, they no longer threatened Europe as a whole.

3a shows the division of Charlemagne's Empire among his grandsons by the Partition of Verdun (843), which is the beginning of the demarcation of modern France, Germany and Italy. Between France and Germany lies a long and rambling territory held, along with Italy, by the Emperor Lothar. This region consists of two parts (a) The old kingdom of Burgundy, from which, however, the N.W. part (compare Plate 2b) was cut off, this segment remained throughout modern history part of the kingdom of France under the name of the Duchy of Burgundy, (b) the valleys of the Meuse and Moselle, called (after the Emperor) Lotharingia (modern Lorraine), and including the first conquests of the Franks and their capital, Aix-la-Chapelle. The modern history of Western Europe is largely concerned with the struggle between France and Germany for the control of Lotharingia and the kingdom of Burgundy, and the student will find it profitable to trace the fortunes of these territories throughout the series of maps.

Europe at the Time of the First Crusade, c. 1100 (Plate 4).—At the end of the 11th century, the great racial movements affecting Western Europe were practically at an end, though there were still to be movements of eastern tribes affecting Western Asia and the plains of Russia. The main features of the racial distribution of Western Europe at this period are shown in Fig. 1. The last great movement in the West was that of the Northmen, who had by 911 established the powerful Duchy of Normandy, whence England was conquered in 1066, while the Norman power was also planted in S. Italy and Sicily (Duchy of Apulia and County of Sicily) during the 11th century. These Normans, who breathed new life into every community which they entered, also guided the beginning of the organised Russian states which had begun to arise, with their chief centres at Novgorod and Kief. During the centuries since Charlemagne, Christianity had also spread with great rapidity, those of the Northmen who remained in their original homes had been converted, as had also most of the Slavonic tribes, notably the Poles, who had begun to form themselves into an organised state like those of the west, constantly at strife with Germany. The Magyars, or Hungarians, also had accepted Latin Christianity; while the Greek form of Christianity had spread over the Balkan Peninsula and been adopted in Russia. The only important region

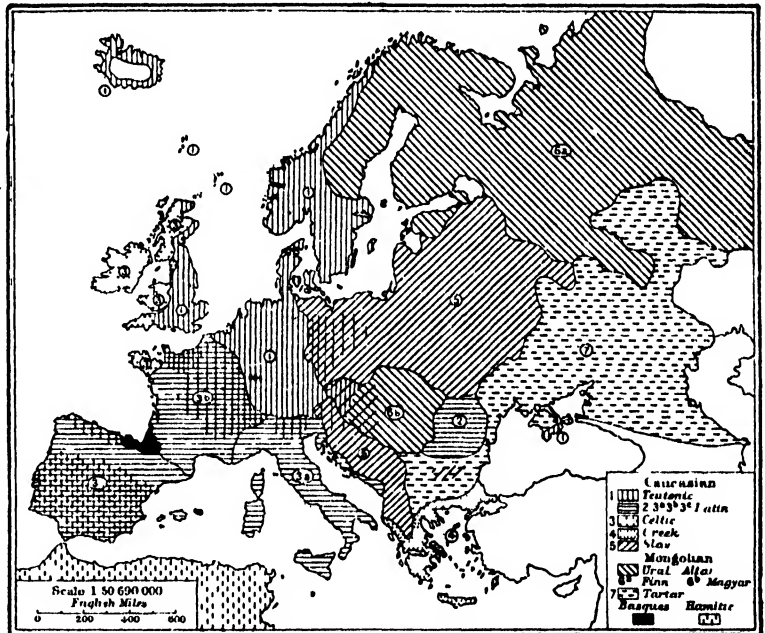


Fig. 1—THE RACES OF EUROPE, c. 1100 A.D.

INTRODUCTION.

which remained pagan was the southern and eastern border of the Baltic, including especially the (Slavonic) Prussians and the Lithuanians. The religious divisions of Europe at this period and generally throughout the Middle Ages are shown in *Fig 11*. The dominant power in Europe during this period was the kingdom of Germany, which, under the

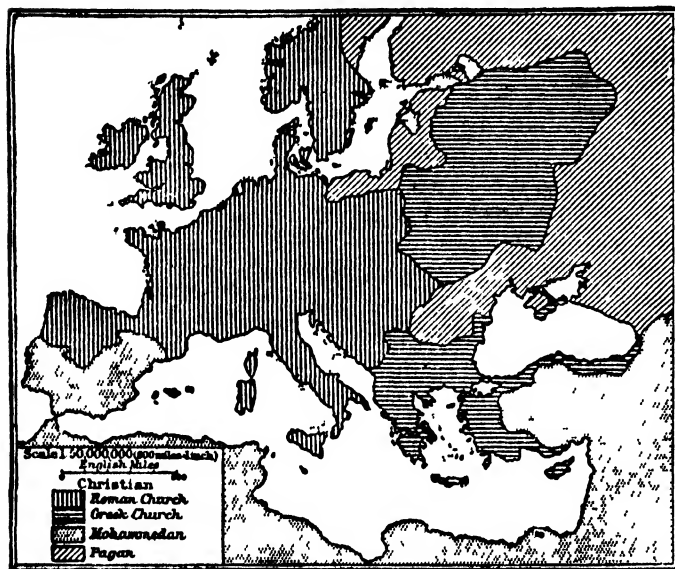


Fig 11 —RELIGIONS OF EUROPE c 1100

defeated the Eastern Emperor at Manzikert and conquered the greater part of Asia Minor. It was this dangerous advance, together with the conquest of Jerusalem and the Syrian coast by the Fatimite caliphs of Cairo, which brought about the First Crusade. The Eastern Empire, deprived of Asia Minor, could scarcely have survived, had it not previously (1013) subjugated the Bulgarians and many of the Slavonic tribes, and thus gained effective control over the Balkan Peninsula.

the kings of the Saxon and Franconian lines (918-1125), had not only welded together the four great nation duchies of Germany (Saxony, Franconia, Swabia, Bavaria), but had united Lotharingia to Germany, assumed the Lombard crown in Italy (962), annexed the kingdom of Burgundy (1033), and compelled the Slavonic kingdoms of Bohemia and (at intervals) Poland to recognize their dependence. This pre-eminence of the German kingdom was recognised by the revival of the name of the Roman Empire, from 962 the Holy Roman Empire was always held by the German king for the time being. From the beginning, however, the Empire was always limited in effect to the three kingdoms of Germany, Burgundy and Italy. Among the other European states there was at this date no rival to the Empire. France was broken up into great feudal states (*see Plate 12*), and several of these were more powerful than the king, who held direct sway only over a very limited territory. In Spain a series of small Christian states had begun to make progress against the Saracens, whose unity had vanished (*see Plate 16c*). Not only had the Saracen power broken up in Spain, in Egypt a separate caliphate had been established by the Fatimites (973), while in the east the Seljuk Turks from Central Asia had made themselves masters of the greater part of the caliphate, except where (as in Syria) a number of small feudal emirates existed. In 1071, the Seljuk Turks

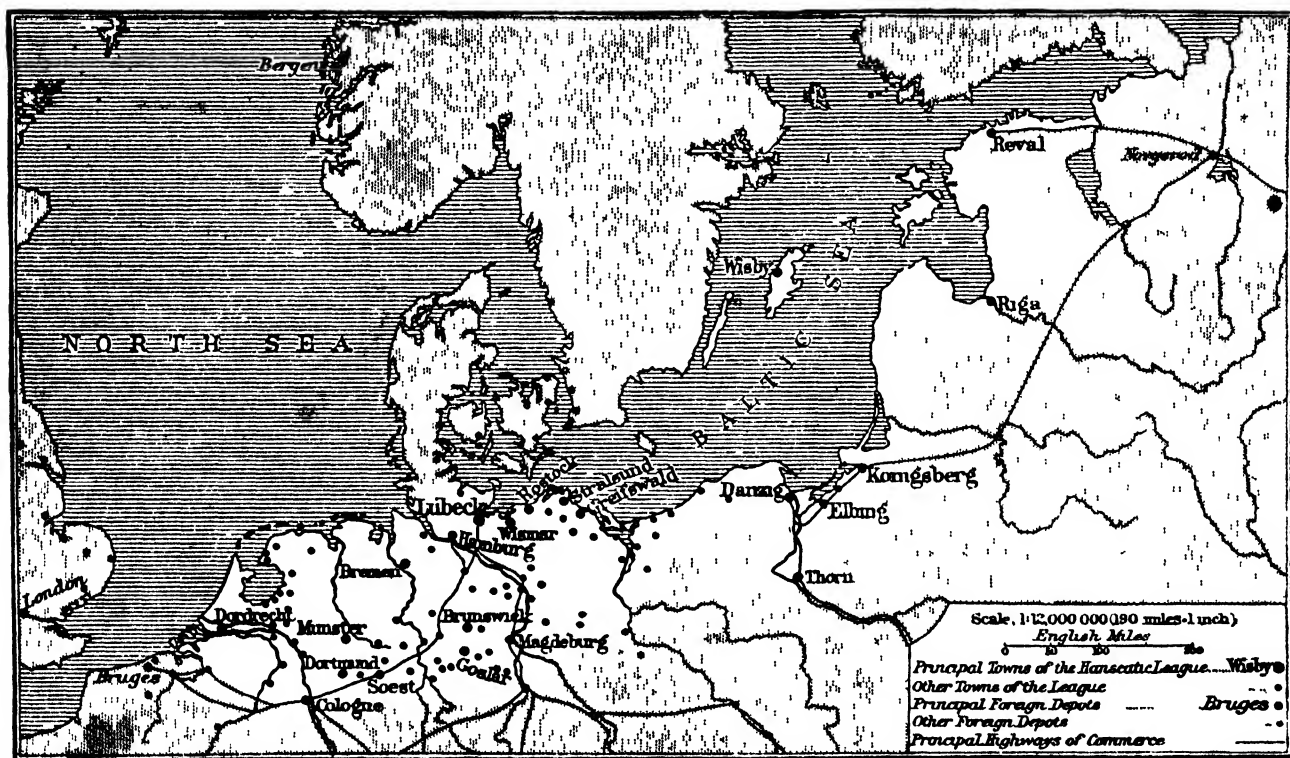


Fig 111 —HANSEATIC LEAGUE

The area left white was commercially controlled by the League

Europe, c. 1380 (*Plate 5*).—This plate shows Europe in the later Middle Ages, when the Empire had broken into fragments, and France had already taken its place as the leading European state. In 1356, by the Golden Bull, the

division of Germany into numerous practically independent states was recognised, and its constitution, as a loose federation under the presidency of the Emperor was fixed. Henceforward the chief interest in the history of Germany consists in the rivalry of the great princely families. The territories held by the two chief of these at this period, the houses of Habsburg and Luxemburg, are shown on the map. The disunion of Germany during the 13th and 14th centuries had also encouraged the rise of the Swiss Confederation, which had established its independence by 1358 (*see* Plate 11c), while the inability of the Emperor to protect trade led to the rise of the Hanseatic League, which in 1368 included 77 towns. The area covered by the activities of the League, together with its chief members and foreign depôts, are shown in *Fig. III* (*see* p. x.). France had already begun to eat into the kingdom of Burgundy, having acquired Dauphine in 1349, while Provence, though not held by the French king, was in the possession of a branch of the French royal line (House of Anjou). The Angevin House had also acquired the great kingdom of Hungary (1342), and the Norman kingdom of Naples (1268), which had been held by the Emperors of the Hohenstauffen line from 1194 to 1268. Sicily, formerly a part of the same kingdom, had revolted from the House of Anjou, and since 1282 had been ruled by an Aragonese prince. The rest of Italy was divided into many small states, republican or despotic; the chief of these being Milan, under the Visconti, while Venice and Genoa had acquired widely scattered territories in the Eastern Mediterranean, and had become independent states of the first importance. While, however, Germany was paying the penalty of its disorganisation at home and in Italy, on the north and east it had made considerable advances, having conquered and largely settled the Baltic shore from the Elbe almost to the Vistula, while German language and customs were increasingly winning ascendancy in Brandenburg, Lusatia, Silesia, and other lands east of the Elbe. Two German military orders, the Teutonic Knights and the Knights of the Sword, had conquered for Christendom the pagan districts of Prussia, Livonia and Esthonia (since 1226), though they were soon to be reduced to dependence by the growing power of Poland. In the west, France had become a great and powerful state (*see* Plate 13a), she had been compelled to accept defeat from the English in the first part of the Hundred Years' War, and to cede large territories in the south to England (1360), but these were soon to be regained, and France and England were now the leading states of the West. In Spain the little states had been consolidated into four, and the Moors had been penned into a strip of territory in the extreme south (*see* Plate 16d). The kingdoms of Castile and of Aragon (which held also the Western Mediterranean islands) had become European powers of the second, if not of the first, rank. The greatest changes on the map since the date of the previous map are those in Eastern Europe and Asia. The Fourth Crusade (1204), diverted by the greed of the Venetians, had been turned against the Eastern Empire, and for a short time (1204-61) Constantinople had been the seat of a Latin Empire (*see* Plate 23b). After the Greek Empire was restored at Constantinople, petty Latin states still occupied Greece proper, while Venice, Genoa and the Knights of St John held many of the islands. The Eastern Empire had thus been reduced to impotence. In the Balkan Peninsula a great Servian Empire had been established, though it broke up on the death of King Stephen Dushan in 1355, meanwhile, in 1291, the last relics of the Latin state in Syria, created by the First Crusade (Plate 23c), had been destroyed by the fall of Acre. Only the deep divisions of the Mohammedan and Turkish states could have enabled the Christian states of the East to survive in these circumstances. In the first half of the 14th century a new and more vigorous power appeared in the Ottoman Turks, so called from their leader Othman. They had by 1360 conquered all the lands of the Empire in NE Asia Minor, as well as Gallipoli on the European side of the Dardanelles, and in the next year, 1361, were to conquer the territory immediately behind Constantinople and threaten its extinction (Plate 21b). The final fall of the Eastern Empire was already inevitable, and was delayed only by the attack of Timur the Tartar, weakening the Turks (Battle of Angora, 1402). Further north, a Tartar invasion of Russia (the Golden Horde) had reduced the rising Russian states to subjection (1241), not to be shaken off till the fifteenth century, and had left the Russians powerless to resist the rapid rise of the new Slavonic state of Lithuania, soon to be united with Poland.

Europe in 1519 (Plate 6).—At the opening of the modern age, and on the eve of the Reformation and the long strife to which it gave rise, the main feature of the map is the appearance of great consolidated states in the West and East of Europe. France (*cf* Plate 13b) has expelled the English (except from Calais), subjugated the last of the great feudatories, and taken another large bite out of the old kingdom of Burgundy by the acquisition of Provence (1481). Spain has been unified by the marriage of Ferdinand of Aragon and Isabella of Castile (1479), the conquest of Granada (1492), and the conquest of Navarre (1512). Poland has become, in extent of territory, a power of the first rank by its union with Lithuania. The Ottoman Turks have subjugated the whole of the Balkan peninsula, conquered Constantinople (1453) and are on the eve of still further advances (*see* Plate 21b). The Scandinavian powers have been united since 1397 in the Union of Calmar, but this union was already threatening to break up, it was dissolved when Sweden declared its independence in 1523. In the midst of these great consolidated states lie the disintegrated countries of Germany and Italy, which are for this reason the main fields of the continual wars of this age. In Italy (*cf* Plate 15c), which has been the scene of strife since 1494, the most important native power is that of Venice, which had acquired a large territory on the mainland in the second half of the 15th century, both France and Spain have obtained a foothold

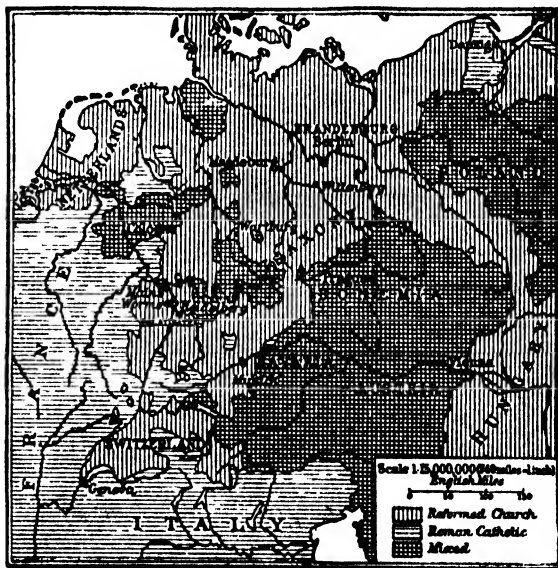


PLATE IV.—RELIGIONS OF CENTRAL EUROPE, c 1600

in Italy in Milan and Naples respectively. In Germany, the chief states are those of Austria, Saxony, Brandenburg and Bavaria; but there were also some 300 independent smaller states. Note the extent of territory owned and ruled by churchmen on the eve of the Reformation (coloured blue). But the most striking feature of the map at this date is the emergence of a wide and scattered Empire which seemed likely in 1519 to subjugate the two divided countries of Germany and Italy, and adding their resources to those of Spain, to leave France and the other powers helpless. This was the Empire of Charles V., coloured light yellow on the map. He inherited from his grandmother, Isabella—Castile, from his grandfather, Ferdinand—Aragon, Sardinia, Naples and Sicily, from his grandmother, Mary of Burgundy, daughter of Charles the Bold, what remained of the Burgundian power—the Netherlands and Franche Comté

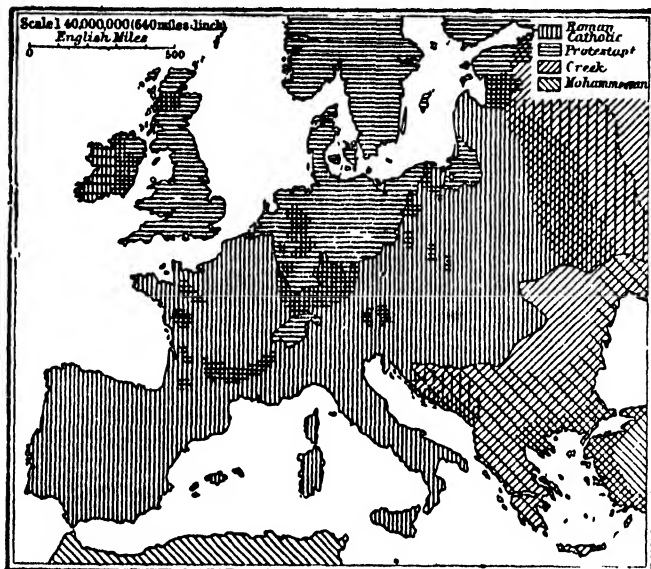


Fig v.—RELIGIONS OF EUROPE, c 1648.

The main political fact of the 16th century is the rapid growth of the Reformed religion in Central Europe. The extent of this growth towards the end of the century is shown in *Fig iv* (see p xi), where it should be noted that at the beginning of the 17th century, not only Northern Germany but Bavaria and the Habsburg lands seemed likely to adopt Protestantism. It was the work of the Counter-Reformation, of Philip II, Ferdinand of Styria, Maximilian of Bavaria, and of the Thirty Years' War, to prevent this.

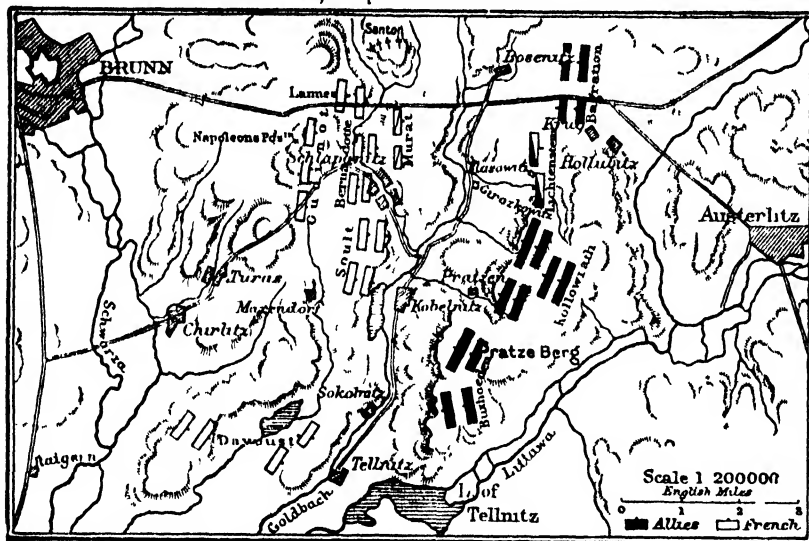


Fig vi.—THE BATTLE OF AUSTERLITZ, 2 DEC 1805

Europe at the Peace of Westphalia (*Plate 7*).—After the century and a half of warfare which followed the Reformation, Europe re-adjusted its political relations in the important Treaties of Westphalia, which continued to govern European politics till the French Revolution. At the same time the treaties recognized the division of Western Europe between the Roman and the Protestant faiths. This division, which is shown in *Fig v*, has continued, almost without change, until to-day. In the political re-adjustment some outstanding facts should be noted: (1) The growth of France, now beyond rivalry the first power of Europe. By the acquisition of the bishoprics of Metz, Toul and Verdun, and of a great part of Alsace, she has begun that process of advance on the northeast, at the expense of Germany and of Spain, which

is to alarm Europe. (2) The greatness of Sweden, now for a short time one of the great powers. She has, since the date of the last map, acquired Ingria and Carelia from Russia (1617), Esthonia and Livonia from Poland (1629), and thus controls the eastern shore of the Baltic. As a result of the part she has played in the Thirty Years' War she acquires, at Westphalia, West Pomerania, with control over the mouth of the Oder, and the Bishoprics of Bremen and

Verden, with control over the mouths of the Weser and Elbe. (3) The United Provinces, having successfully revolted from Spain, obtained recognition of their independence in 1648, and were also declared to be no longer part of the Empire. They are at the height of their brief period of greatness as one of the leading powers of Europe. (4) Germany has thus shrunk in area, and finds herself, owing to her disintegration, a prey to the ambition of external powers, while the Treaties of Westphalia, regarded as a "fundamental law of the Empire," stereotyped her hopeless disorganisation. (5) Within Germany the greatest power is that of the Habsburg House, in which the title of Emperor has almost become hereditary, but Austria is still seriously threatened by the Turk, and her territories are, racially, much divided. Among the other German powers, Brandenburg made the greatest gains by the treaties, and the growth of its power is henceforth the main feature of German history (see Plate 20). (6) Poland and Turkey are still at their maximum of territory. Note how they and Sweden shut out Russia from all contact with the sea and with Western Europe. It is in this region that the main changes in the map of Europe are hereafter to take place (see Plate 22).

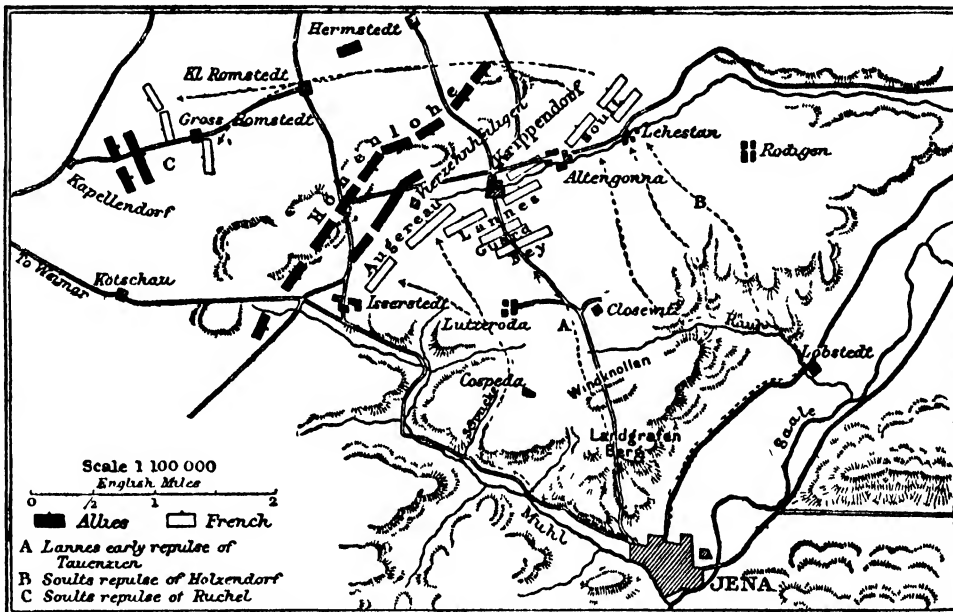


Fig vii.—THE BATTLE OF JENA, 14 OCT, 1806.

Europe in 1740 (Plate 8).—This plate illustrates the complicated wars and diplomacies of the 18th century. The chief points to note are—(1) The continued growth of France on the east and north east. Franche-Comté, the remainder of Alsace, Lorraine and a large slice of the Netherlands having been added by Louis XIV and Louis XV (see also Plates 13c and 19c), Lorraine was acquired in virtue of the Treaty of Vienna, 1737, but was not incorporated as French territory till 1766, on the death of ex-king Stanislas of Poland; (2) the bulk of the Spanish dominions have passed to the House of Bourbon, the Netherlands to Austria, in accordance with the treaties of Utrecht and Rastadt; (4) the position of Hanover, involving England in the complicated relations of Europe; (5) the shrinking of Sweden, which has lost Bremen and Verden to Hanover, part of W. Pomerania to Brandenburg (since 1700 known as the kingdom of Prussia), and the Baltic provinces to Russia; (6) the shrinking of Poland, which has lost a great strip of territory on the east to Russia (1667); (7) the shrinking of the Ottoman Empire, which has lost all Hungary; (8) the growth of Savoy, now the kingdom of Sardinia; (9) the continued growth of Brandenburg, now the kingdom of Prussia. These two new kingdoms are to be the nuclei of modern Italy and Germany.

Europe under Napoleon, 1810 (Plate 9).—Each stage in the career of Napoleon was marked by some change in the map of Europe. Among these numerous and temporary changes only the final stage is here shown, representing the Napoleonic Empire at its height, when after Austerlitz and Jena, Austria and Prussia had been brought to their knees, and almost all the rest of Europe was in dependent alliance with the Emperor. Napoleon's direct acquisitions of territory (coloured dark green) include the whole coast of the North Sea from the Scheldt to the Elbe, an annexation rendered necessary as a means of enforcing the exclusion of English goods, a large part of Italy, and the Adriatic coast, the latter in order to cut off Austria from contact with the sea and with her former English allies. In regard to the dependent states of his Empire (coloured light green) it should be noted (1) that the Confederation of the Rhine immensely simplified the political geography of Germany and encouraged the rise of German national feeling, it was impossible even for the diplomatists of 1815 to restore the old confusion. In a measure, the same may be said of

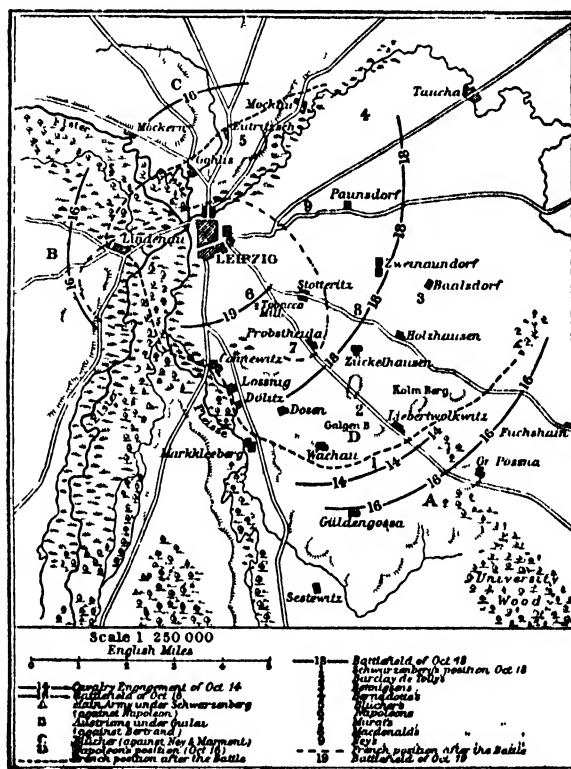


Fig viii.—THE BATTLES OF LEIPZIG, 16-19 OCT, 1813.

Italy, though there the restoration was more complete the Napoleonic deluge obliterated many irrational divisions, and, at least, showed that they were neither inevitable nor necessary. In Poland, again, when he created the Grand Duchy of Warsaw out of the sections of Polish territory which Austria and Prussia had received in the second and third partitions (*cf* Plate 22), he appealed to the sentiment of Nationalism. But note the expansion of Russia since the date of the last map. She keeps in the time of Napoleon all that she had annexed from Sweden, Poland and Turkey (Plate 22) and adds Finland. For the wars of the French Revolution and Napoleon *see* Plates 11a and b, 17, 19a, 20, and *Figs* vi, vii, viii, ix, xiii, xiv.

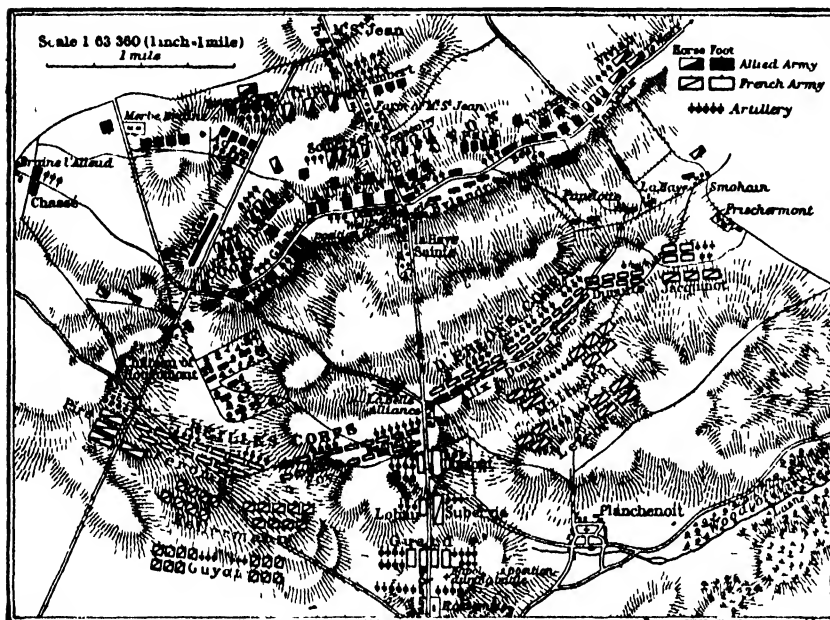


Fig ix.—THE BATTLE OF WATERLOO (AS AT 11 A.M.), 18 JUNE, 1815

Europe in 1815 (Plate 10)—This plate shows the reconstruction of Europe effected by the Great Powers in 1815. Note especially the features of the settlement, which by disregarding national sentiment produced the principal troubles of the 19th century—(1) The forced union of Sweden and Norway, (2) the similar union of Holland and Belgium, (3) the restoration of the old division in Italy, and the controlling power exercised by Austria there in the possession of Lombardy and Venetia, the one favourable feature being the expansion of the kingdom of Sardinia by the addition of Liguria and other lands, (4) the revival, in the German Confederation, of a ghost of the old Holy Roman Empire, powerless to achieve anything, and useful only as an aid to Austria in checking any movement towards unity or liberty. Germany, however, emerges greatly simplified, and above all, with one dominant power, Prussia, capable of becoming a centre of unity. Note also the growth of Russia, now mistress of Finland and Poland and the shores of the Black Sea, also having annexed Bessarabia—a step on the way to Constantinople.

SECTION II.—THE GROWTH OF THE PRINCIPAL STATES OF EUROPE. PLATES 11—23.

The maps in this section deal in turn with each of the principal states or regions of Europe. The periods dealt with also supplement, and fill the gaps between, the general European maps. In general, a large physical map of each area is given, showing the boundaries (usually of an early period) in red, and this is followed by a series of small maps for different periods, which the student should always read in conjunction with the main physical map. A uniform scale has been preserved in the physical maps of France, Italy, Spain and Germany.

Plate 11 deals with the two small groups of federated republics which were until 1793 the only non-monarchical states in Europe. Both formed originally parts of Germany (*see* Plate 18), both were first formally recognised as independent states in 1648.

11a. The Netherlands in the XVII. Century.—The Netherlands in the Middle Ages formed a group of disconnected duchies and counties (for a map of this period *see* Students' Edition of this Atlas). They were first united under the princes of the House of Burgundy in the 15th century (*see* Plate 19b), and welded together by Charles V. This map is intended to illustrate the Dutch War of Independence, the campaigns of Louis XIV, and the acquisitions of France. As, however, the Low Countries have been the battleground of Europe throughout modern history, all the principal battlefields are shown. Note the "Lands of the Generality," parts of the County of Flanders and the Duchy of Brabant, which were conquered by the seven independent provinces of the north, and administered as a dependency of the confederacy. The campaign of Waterloo is shown in 11b, for the actual battle *see* *Fig* ix.

11c. Growth of the Swiss Confederation.—There are three main stages in the growth of the Swiss Confederation: (1) the formation of the original Everlasting League of the three Forest Cantons in 1291 against the Habsburgs, (2) the addition of the five neighbouring cantons, 1332-53, as a result of the military successes of the Cantons in the war with the Habsburgs, (3) the struggle with Charles of Burgundy, 1474-7, bringing about the addition of new members to the confederacy, and establishing the military reputation of the Swiss. The confederation also conquered various territories which were ruled as subject states (coloured green on the map). In addition, the distinct group of federated states now known as the Grisons, together with St. Gall, Valais, Neuchâtel, and the Bishopric of Basle, without being full members, were independent allies.

France and Burgundy in 987 (Plate 12).—Shows the original limits of the Kingdoms of France and Burgundy. France consisted essentially of the valleys of the Somme, Seine, Loire and Garonne, Burgundy of the valley of the Rhone, while the valleys of the Meuse and Moselle, forming the Duchy of Lotharinga, constituted

part of the kingdom of Germany throughout the Middle Ages. The Cevennes constituted roughly the natural frontier between France and Burgundy. Note the Duchy of Burgundy, cut off from the kingdom by the Partition of Verdun, 843, and always thereafter part of France. In the following maps the student should trace the gradual acquisition by France of the whole of the kingdom of Burgundy, except Savoy (acquired by France in 1860, see Plate 16b) and Western Switzerland. Note also the great original territorial divisions of France (1) The Duchy of Francia, corresponding to the Neustria of the later Merovingians and early Carolingians, from which (2) the Duchy of Normandy was cut off by the Treaty of St-Clair-sur-Epte in 911, (3) the County of Flanders, (4) the Celtic Duchy of Brittany, (5) the vast Duchy of Aquitaine, (6) the Duchy of Gascony, (7) the County of Toulouse, (8) the District of Septimania, or Gothia, the last part of France held by the Visigoths, and originally part of the Roman Gallia Narbonensis, and (9) the County of Barcelona—i.e., the Spanish March, conquered by Charlemagne, which remained nominally part of the kingdom of France until 1258. Within these greater divisions some of the mediate feudal states are noted, but without precise boundaries, because these frequently shifted.

The Growth of France (Plate 13).—The development of the French monarchy falls naturally into four periods (1) From Philip Augustus to the Hundred Years' War (1180-1337), in which the chief feature is the gradual subjugation of the great feudatories. This period is illustrated in 13a, but it is impossible to show in detail in a single map the complicated history of the royal domain, for further detail see "Longnon's Atlas of French History." Territories acquired by the Crown were frequently alienated as "appanages" for younger members

of the royal house, and were not re-acquired till much later. Thus *Poitou* was conquered from John and Henry III. of England by Philip Augustus and Louis VIII, but became an "appanage" of Alphonse, Louis VIII's son, Alphonse married the heiress of the County of Toulouse and Marquisate (not County) of Provence, and on his death without heirs these lands along with Poitou passed to Philip III of France. Poitou is therefore coloured for Philip III, not for Philip Augustus. Again, *Artois*, acquired by Philip Augustus, became the appanage of Robert, another son of Louis VIII, it subsequently fell into the hands of the House of Burgundy, and was not finally added to the royal domain until the time of Louis XIV. For the Battle of Bouvines, the supreme victory of Philip Augustus, see Fig. x (2) The second period is that of the Hundred Years' War (1337-1453)

This is illustrated by the two maps, Plate 29a and b, and by Figs xviii, xix, xx (3) The third period extends to the end of the Wars of Religion and the beginning of the ascendancy of France under Henry IV. This is illustrated by 13b. The main features of this period are (a) the suppression of the last great independent feudal states: Burgundy, on the death of Charles the Bold (1477), Brittany, on the marriage of its heiress, Anne, to Charles VIII (1491), Anjou and Provence, by the deaths of René and Charles of Anjou (1480 and 1481), (b) the part played during the 16th century by the powerful Bourbon branch of the royal line: the lands of the Constable Bourbon in the reign of Francis I and of the Bourbons of Navarre, the Protestant leaders during the Wars of Religion, are specially indicated on the map, which also shows the principal places of importance during this war. The distribution of the Huguenots in France is illustrated by Fig. xi, which shows the chief recognised Protestant centres where public worship was licensed under the Edict of Nantes. Note that Protestantism found its chief centres in the west, from Normandy to Gascony (except Brittany), and in the south, in the old country of the Albigenes. Compare the Bourbon lands in 13b with the Protestant districts shown in Fig. xi (4) The fourth period extends from the Wars of Religion to the French Revolution, and is the great age of absolute monarchy, with the reign of Louis XIV as its central point. The chief feature of this age is the rounding off of the frontiers at the expense of Germany and Spain, especially on the north and south (13c and d). In 13c, the Bishoprics of Metz, Toul and Verdun are coloured as having been acquired by Louis XIV because they were finally ceded by the Empire in 1648, but they had been held by France since their conquest by Henry II in 1552. For the variations of the N.E. frontier of France since 1648, see Plate 19c. For the Franco-German War, see Fig. xii (p. xvi).

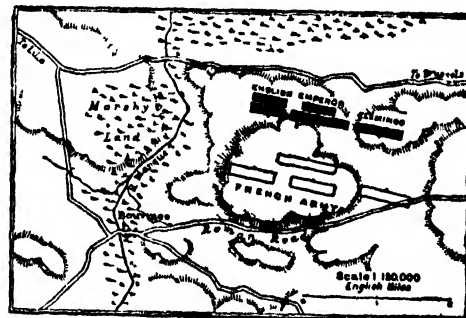


Fig. x.—THE BATTLE OF BOUVINES, 27 JULY, 1214.

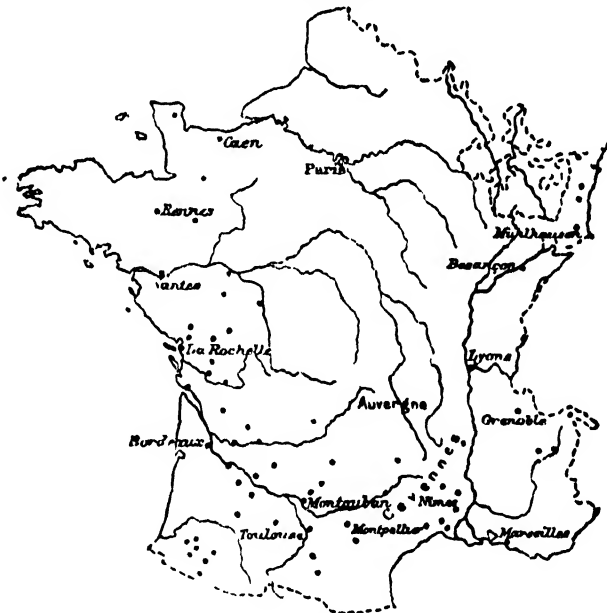


Fig. xi.—PROTESTANTS IN FRANCE

The black dots indicate the chief recognised places of Protestant worship in the reign of Louis XIV.

Italy about 600 (Plate 14).—Medieval Italy began with the establishment of the Lombards, who, failing to make themselves masters of the whole peninsula, broke it into fragments, which were never re-united until the 19th century. The Lombard territories fall into two distinct blocks (1) The Kingdom occupying the Po Valley and Tuscany, (2) the two great *Duchies* of Spoleto and Benevento in the south. These were separated by an irregular belt of territory extending diagonally across Italy from north to south, which until the coronation of Charlemagne recognised the

superiority of the Emperor at Constantinople. This region was ruled (a) from Ravenna, where the representative of the Emperor held court as Exarch (hence the provincial name Exarchate), and (b) from Rome, where the authority of the Pope was steadily increased by the confusion. This territory (approximately) was made over to the Pope by Charlemagne on his conquest of Italy, and it roughly corresponds to the area of the Papal states down to the 19th century. The coastal regions controlled by Genoa, Venice, Naples and Amalfi, also recognised the nominal supremacy of the Emperor; while the southern extremities of the peninsula and the three great islands remained in the possession of the Emperor until they were conquered—the islands by the Saracens (c. 850), and Southern Italy by the Normans (1016-55).

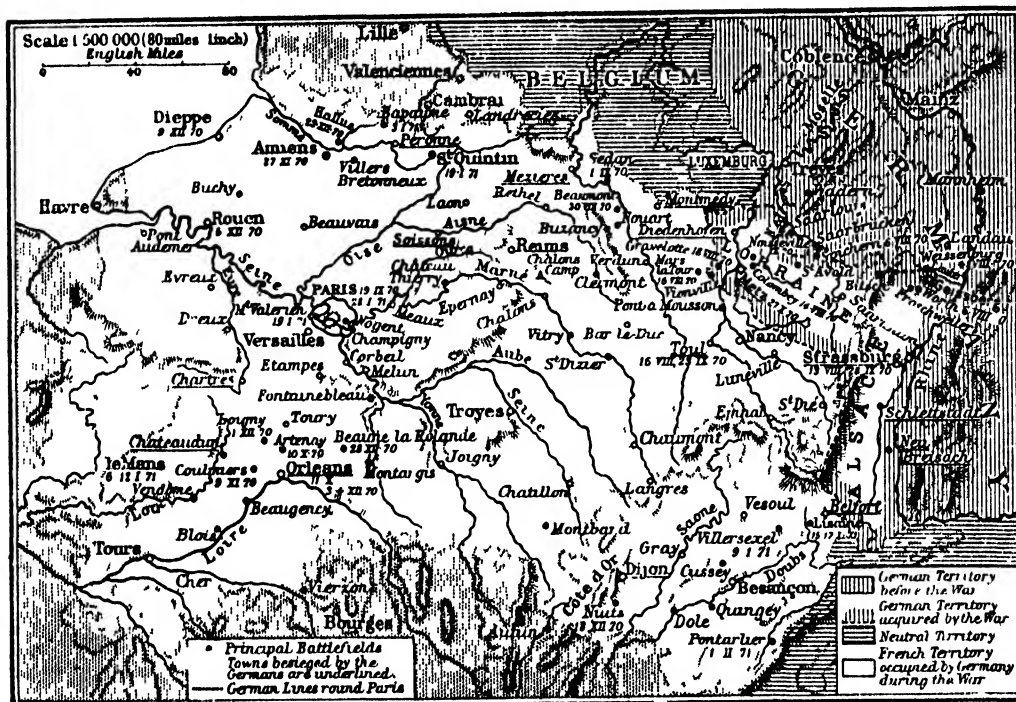


Fig. XII.—FRANCO-GERMAN WAR

Papacy and the Empire (Guelf and Ghibelline) in the 12th and 13th centuries, and especially during the reign of Frederick II (1215-50), the Lombard and Tuscan leagues as shown on the map are the leagues as they existed from 1226. (15c) shows in some detail the most important part of Italy in the greatest age of its history, that of the Renaissance, and is intended also to illustrate the Wars of Italy, 1494-1544, see also Fig. XIII. The part of the Papal States outlined in blue was occupied by numerous independent princelets. It was here that Caesar Borgia and his father Alexander VI laboured to create a consolidated state (1500-3). (15d) and (e) trace the territorial expansion of the two most interesting Italian states

in the 14th and 15th centuries.

Note the comparative lateness of the expansion of Venice, which only began when powerful hostile states (especially the Duchy of Milan) threatened to control the passes through which her commerce reached Central Europe.

Italy and the Iberian Peninsula at different periods (Plate 16).—(16a)

Note the crystallisation of Italy in this period into ten defined states, six of major and four of minor rank. Though there is a good deal of dynastic rearrangement during the period, there is little change in boundaries, until the great recast under Napoleon (see Plate 9). The chief point to note is the rise of Savoy and



Fig. XIII.—BATTLEFIELDS OF NORTHERN ITALY

Piedmont to royal rank at the expense of the Bourbons, first as the kingdom of Sicily (1712-18), then as the kingdom of Sardinia. (16b) Shows the resettlement of Italy at the Treaty of Vienna, 1815. Note (1) the position of Austria, and (2) the growth of its future rival, Sardinia, at the expense of Lombardy and Genoa. The map also illustrates the unification of Italy, dates being given for the inclusion of each province. Much of the European warfare of the 16th, 17th, 18th, and 19th centuries was waged on the North Italian plain (Fig. XIII). These campaigns are invariably dominated

by the outstanding physical feature of the region—the series of deep rivers which have to be crossed by any army advancing across the plain. The chief line of defence has always been at the point where the Alps advance furthest into the plain, and where the rivers Mincio and Adige, with the great fortresses of Verona, Legnano, Peschiera and Mantua constitute a formidable obstacle, known in military annals as the Quadrilateral. 16 (c) and (d) illustrate the advance of the Christian states in Spain during the 12th and 13th centuries, the age of crusading fervour in the Peninsula. Note in 16 (c) the County of Barcelona, representing the Spanish March of Charlemagne, and nominally part of the Kingdom of France until 1258. These maps should be compared with Plate 17, in order that the student may realise the way in which the great mountain barriers of Spain governed the advance of the Christian states.

The Iberian Peninsula at the time of the Peninsular War (Plate 17).—Illustrates more especially the periods of the Spanish Succession and Peninsular Wars. Note how the campaigns were determined by the direction of the river valleys and mountain ranges, and by the greater military roads, which are shown, also how the physical barriers in which the country abounds not only prevented effective co operation between the various French armies and thus added to their difficulties, but accentuated the strong provincial sentiment of the various provinces of Spain. Note the magnificent strategic position of the Torres Vedras lines, a vast natural fortress, commanding the best possible base for an Atlantic naval power, and also controlling the best roads into the heart of the peninsula, from which it was possible to threaten equally all the scattered French armies. For a more detailed study of Torres Vedras, see Fig. XIV.

Germany about 962 (Plate 18)—Shows the beginning of the kingdom of Germany, and illustrates its political history down to the 12th century. Note that the original Germany consists of the valleys of the Weser, Ems, Rhine, Meuse, Moselle and Upper Danube. The Elbe, the Saale, and the Bohemian Forest constitute the boundary between the German lands and the Slavonic lands. East of this line a broad band of Marches or border States extends as far as the Oder, and represents the beginning of the eastward expansion of Germany. Note also the five great nation duchies of Germany—Saxony, Franconia, Swabia, Bavaria, and Lotharinga—whose provincial spirit of independence formed the greatest obstacle to German unity down to the 12th century.

Germany at different periods (Plate 19).—The history of Germany may be divided into four periods. (I) From the establishment of the Saxon dynasty (918) to the fall of the Hohenstauffen (1272) Germany was beyond rivalry the greatest state of Europe, forming the heart of the Holy Roman Empire, with Burgundy and Italy as its subsidiary members, it was also (despite the growing independence of the great feudatories and the long and embittered strife with the papacy) until about 1230 the best consolidated of European states. This period is illustrated by 19 (a), which shows Germany at the time of its greatest power, under the Hohenstauffen, but shows also the lands and claims of the great rival House of Welf or Guelf. During this period the advance of the Germans, at the expense of the Slavs, to the east of the Elbe should be noted. See also Plate 4. (II) The second period, 1272–1648, is that of increasing disintegration among numerous princely families, the Empire becoming more and more a mere name. This disintegration culminated in the Reformation and the wars which followed it, and was finally confirmed by the Treaties of Westphalia, 1648. It is illustrated by 19 (b), which shows the disorder existing on the eve of the Reformation, see also Plates 5 and 6. The period treated in 19 (b) is marked (1) by the complete disorganisation of the kingdom of Burgundy, which (as such) disappears from the map, (2) by the rise of a number of important princely families of these, the Habsburgs (in Austria), the Wettins (in Saxony), the Wittelsbachs (in Bavaria and the Palatinate), the Hohenzollerns (in Brandenburg) continue as ruling Houses to day, (3) by the rise of a vigorous anti German feeling among the Slavonic states, which was shown in the Hussite Wars (1419–34), and in the new vigour and greatness of Poland, as 19 (b) shows, for a moment united the chief Slav states, and overshadowed Germany, (4) by the rise, within the



Fig. XIV.—LINES OF TORRES VEDRAS.

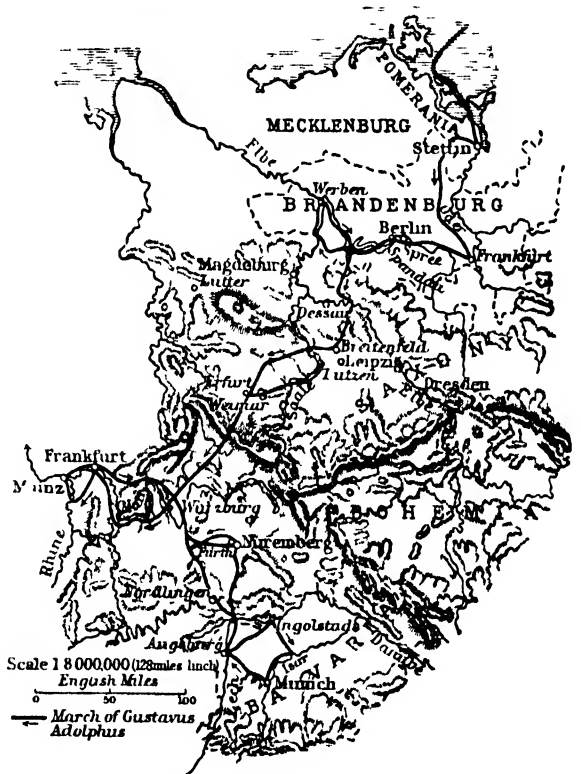


Fig. XV.—CAMPAIGN OF GUSTAVUS ADOLPHUS.

Empire as well as in France, of the formidable House of Burgundy, which until 1477 threatened to establish a middle kingdom between France and Germany observe that the two main blocks of Burgundian territory might be united either at the expense of France (Champagne) or at that of Germany (Lorraine), (5) by the establishment of the Swiss Confederation (see Plate 11c), (6) by the power of the Hanseatic League, which was due to the inability of the Emperor to protect trade (see Fig. III, p. x), (7) by the conquest and conversion of the heathen Prussians, etc., not through any national German enterprise, but through the independent activity of the Teutonic knights (since 1226). The influence of the Reformation on Germany is illustrated by Fig. IV (p. xi) and Plate 7. The most striking episode in the terrible Thirty Years' War, the intervention of Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden, is illustrated by Fig. XV (see p. xvi), which shows the course of his brilliant campaign. During this period of disunion, Germany became the scene of the rivalries of the chief European states, especially the rivalry between France and the House of Austria (1519-1756). A principal field of this rivalry was Southern Germany, which lay between these two powers, and which was perhaps the most disorganised part of the country. 19 (c) shows this region in some detail, omitting the complicated political boundaries, in order to illustrate the frequent warfare both of this and of the succeeding periods. (III) The third period (1648-1806), while still one of disorganisation, is marked by the rivalry of two great German powers, Prussia and Austria, the former of which rapidly rises to the first rank among European powers. This period is illustrated by Plates 20 and 21a. It is also a period of constant warfare with France, in studying which, 19 (c) will be found useful. For the Battle of Blenheim see Fig. XVI. The period closes with the Napoleonic re-organisation of Germany, for which see Plate 9. For the Battles of Austerlitz and Jena, see Figs. VI and VII (pp. xii and xiii), for the Battles of Leipzig and Waterloo, Figs. VIII and IX (pp. xiii and xiv). (IV) The fourth period, from 1806, is especially concerned with the re-establishment of German unity under the leadership of Prussia, Austria being excluded. 19 (d) shows the short-lived "German Confederation," invented by the statesmen of 1815 to replace the dissolved Holy Roman Empire, but chiefly useful to Austria as a means of checking the nationalist movement. Note the total disappearance of ecclesiastical states. The way in which tariffs were used to forward the process of consolidation of Germany is illustrated by the map of the growth of the Zollverein, Plate 40d. The Franco-German War, which consummated the process of unification, and in which Germany took vengeance for the long centuries during which France had profited by her disunity, is illustrated by Fig. XII (p. xvi), which shows the whole field of war.

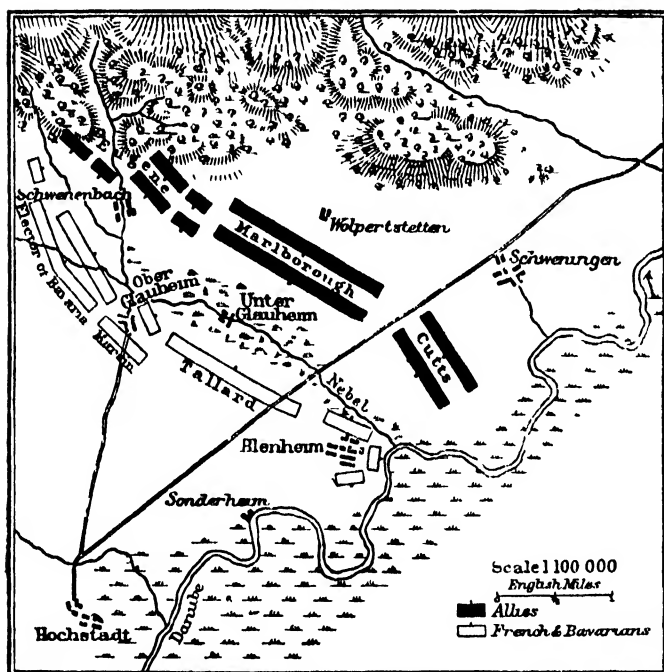


Fig. XVI.—THE BATTLE OF BLENHEIM 13 AUG., 1704

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Growth of Prussia (Plate 20)—See note on Plate 19.—The maps on this plate, besides showing the growth of Prussia, which has been the chief feature of the history of Germany since 1648, serve also to illustrate the wars and treaties of the 17th, 18th and 19th centuries, especially those associated with Louis XIV.

and the Great Elector, with Frederick the Great, with Napoleon, and with Bismarck. Napoleon's high handed treatment of Prussia, after the Battle of Jena, breaks the history of Prussian expansion into two clearly marked periods. The first period extends from 1415, when the House of Hohenzollern was first planted in the Mark of Brandenburg, the chief landmarks of this period are the consolidating work of the great Elector (1640-88), the wars and conquests of Frederick the Great (1740-86), and the partitions of Poland (1772-93-95). Thanks to these partitions, Prussia seemed likely, at the moment of its overthrow by Napoleon, to become, like the Habsburg Empire, a predominantly Slavonic rather than a German state. It 1815 it was compensated for the loss of the bulk of its Polish lands by solid acquisitions in Western Germany, which before the French Revolution had been largely occupied by ecclesiastical states. It thus became the greatest of purely German powers and the chief hope of German unity, and the way was prepared for the work of Bismarck. For the Battle of Jena, see Fig. VII (p. xiii).

21a Growth of the Habsburg Dominions.—The Habsburg House, which since 1519, and in a less degree since 1272, has played a leading part in European affairs, built up its vast and heterogeneous empire mainly by means of a succession of fortunate marriages and a persistent and *ruse* diplomacy, of which it is impossible to give any account here, their results are recorded in the map. Note the wide territories held at one time or another by this family and subsequently lost, especially the loss of German lands. The Austrian house held the Imperial crown continuously from 1438 till the abolition of the Holy Roman Empire in 1806 (except in the years 1742-5), and the Presidency of the Germanic Confederation from 1815 till 1866, and was thus throughout this period the dominant power in Germany. But it has never been, at any rate since the 16th century, a purely German power, and, occupied chiefly with its non-German lands, was never able to obtain the real leadership of Germany. After 1526 (when Bohemia, Hungary, etc. were acquired) only a part of its territories lay even within the limits of the Empire (see Plates 6, 7 and 8) or of the German Confederation (see Plates 10 and 19a), even of these Bohemia, Moravia, Styria and (in part) Carinthia were Slavonic in race, speech and sentiment, while Austria itself was not part of the original Germany (see Plate 18), but though thoroughly Germanised, was like Brandenburg, a *mark* or border-province, originally Slavonic. Outside the limits

of the Empire the Habsburg territories have always been occupied by a strange mixture of races, all acutely conscious of their racial distinctions and attached to their distinctive institutions—Hungarians, Slovaks, Ruthenians, Croats, Roumans, Servians, etc. Since the middle of the 18th century the whole tendency of this divided monarchy has been towards expansion in the non-German regions. The Austro-Hungarian Empire, therefore, is not and has never been a nation state, like the other great regions previously dealt with; it is an area occupied by fragments of almost all the races that have peopled Europe, held together only by common subjection to a ruling House. Consequently, the Habsburg House has been the foe of all nationalist movements, especially in Germany, while its geographical position has involved it in all the international contests of the last four centuries. This absence of any national basis is the clue to its political history since the 16th century. For the Battle of Austerlitz, see *Fig. vi* (p. xii).

21b. Growth of the Ottoman Empire.—The Ottoman Empire, like the Habsburg Empire, is not a nation state, but is the empire of a small and warlike tribe, whose armies even were largely manned from among its subjects. Its power therefore, has at all times depended upon the vigour of its rulers. Observe that the great Empire shown on the map is mainly the work of three princes—Mohammed II., Selim II. and Solymán the Magnificent. The rapidity with which the Empire was acquired was due to the division of the territory affected among hostile and ill-organised tribes, and as the Empire lacked all the elements of unity, it could have no permanence, but for the jealousies of the European powers, it must have broken up much earlier. For the first stages in the decay of the Ottoman Empire see *Plate 22*. The history of the Balkan Peninsula during the 19th century will be the subject of a *Plate* in the Students' Edition of this *Atlas*. For the earlier history of the Balkan Peninsula and the Asiatic lands see the General Maps of Europe and *Plate 23*.

Middle Eastern Europe (Plate 22).—Illustrates the most remarkable series of territorial changes which have taken place in Europe in modern times, changes which, despite the rapidity and high-handedness with which they were accomplished, have been, in their main features, permanent. In *22 (a)*, three great states, Sweden, Poland and Turkey, are seen stretching across Europe from north to south. They shut out Russia from all contact with the sea or with the Western European powers, while Prussia is a minor and divided state, seemingly at the mercy of Poland and Sweden, and Austria controls only a small territory, gravely threatened by Turkey. In *22 (b)*, 130 years later, one of these three great states, Poland, has vanished altogether, the stages of its destruction being marked by red lines (with dates) on the map; Sweden has lost most of its Baltic lands to Russia and is soon (1809) to lose Finland also; it has also lost part of its German Territory to Prussia; Turkey has lost its northern Black Sea lands to Russia, and the whole of Hungary to Austria. The three powers, Russia, Prussia, and Austria, now almost divide Eastern Europe between them. The maps also illustrate the campaigns in Eastern Europe from 1650 to 1800.

The Crusades (Plate 23).—Is primarily intended to illustrate the later crusades (for the first crusade see *Plate 4*), but also serves to illustrate the history of the Eastern Empire in the 12th, 13th and 14th centuries. *23 (b)* shows the break up of the Eastern Empire as a result of the Fourth Crusade, and the establishment of a number of petty Latin states on its ruins. In *23 (c)*, which serves to illustrate the fighting in Syria, note the limits of the territory secured by Frederick II. by treaty in 1229, when he was under papal excommunication. He had, in fact (as these maps show), achieved more than any of his predecessors since the first crusade.

SECTION III.—THE BRITISH ISLES. PLATES 24—36

Roman Britain (Plate 24).—This map illustrates not only the Roman occupation, but the influence of physical features upon early English history. Not only the mountains but the forests and marshes exercised a profound influence, breaking up the country into isolated fragments. Observe the skill with which the Roman roads overcame these obstacles, and in some degree welded the country together. Note the relation of the northern roads to the great Wall and the defence of the northern frontier. Note also that London, though never an administrative centre under the Romans, is nevertheless the point from which all roads radiate. From the ports on the Kentish shore through which contact with the rest of the Empire was maintained, roads must run to all parts of the province, but the dense *Anderida silva* on the left, and the marshy estuary of the Thames on the right, forced the roads to converge on the lowest convenient crossing-point over the Thames. At the centre of the road system, with the best navigable river to bring down the products of the inland regions to her markets, and with a safe harbour which looked out towards the Continent but was at the same time far more secure from marauders than the shore-ports, London was from the beginning destined to be the capital of England.

Political development of England before the Norman Conquest (Plate 25).—These maps, especially *25 (a)*, should be read in conjunction with *Plate 24*, in order that the student may realise how the course of the English conquest, and the divisions among the conquering tribes, were determined by the physical features. Observe the extreme slowness of the conquest as shown in *25 (a)*. It was probably only in the first stage that there was any complete displacement of the earlier Celto-Iberian population. Note the remarkable permanence of the divisions between Wessex, Mercia, etc., which survive down to the Norman Conquest, and which only a crushing force could obliterate.

The British Isles and their Invaders (Plate 26).—Illustrates (a) the physical relationship between the British Isles and the Continent, (b) the political relationships of the 11th century, when after long isolation England was brought once again and finally into the European comity, through the enterprise of the all-pervading Northmen, first as a part of the Empire of Canute, later by the Norman Conquest. Note that this is the century in which the restless and adventurous spirit of the Northmen is achieving its greatest results, cf. note on *Plate 4* above.

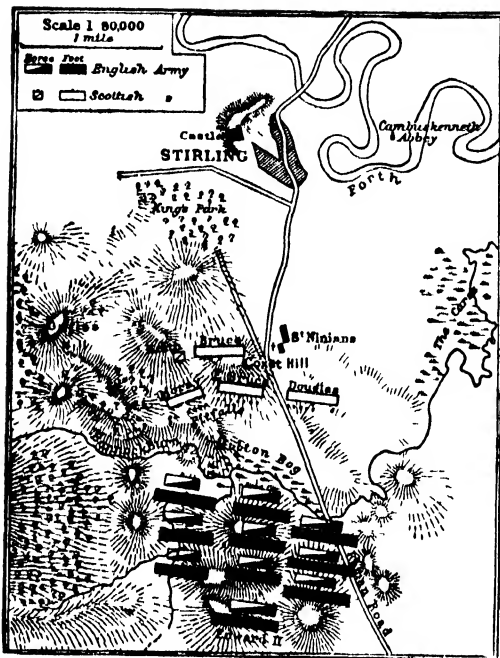


Fig xvii —THE BATTLE OF BANNOCKBURN, 25 JUNE, 1314

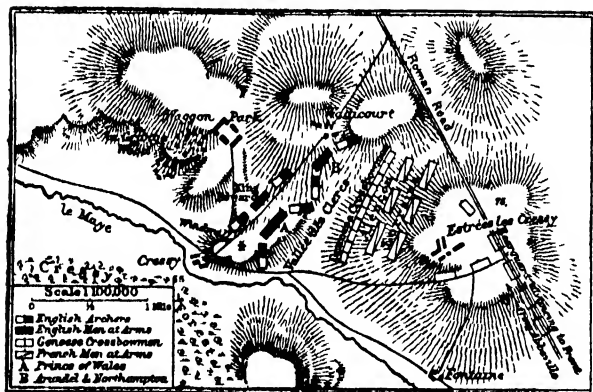


Fig xviii —THE BATTLE OF CRESSY, 26 AUG., 1346

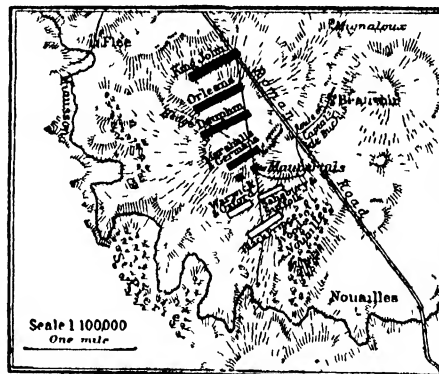


Fig xix —THE BATTLE OF POITIERS, 19 SEPT., 1356

The failure of Philip IV of France loyally to observe this treaty maintained a constant state of friction between England and France. For the Battles of Cressy and Poitiers, see Figs xviii and xix. Map (b) illustrates the War in France under Henry V and Henry VI — note the extent of the Burgundian territory at this period, for its later growth see Plate 19b, for the Battle of Agincourt, see Fig xx. 29 (c) shows the principal castles in Wales and the Marches, and illustrates the important part played by this region in the Wars of the Barons, as well as Edward I's conquest of North Wales and his organisation of shires, 29 (d) illustrates more especially the War of Scottish independence, but also the whole course of the border struggle between the two nations during the mediæval period. For the earlier history of Scotland see Plate 32. For the Battle of Bannockburn, see Fig xvii.

Ecclesiastical England to the time of Henry VIII. (Plate 30) —Shows the ecclesiastical division of England during the later middle ages and down to the time of Henry VIII, whose new bishoprics are indicated. Note the parliamentary abbeys whose abbots sat in the House of Lords. These varied in number, only the 26 which were generally represented are shown. In regard to other monasteries, the aim of the map is to give a general impression of

Mediæval England and Wales (Plate 27).—Illustrates the general history of England from the Norman Conquest to the Tudor Period. It shows (1) the chief battlefields, (2) the principal castles, (3) the boroughs which returned members to 14th century Parliaments. The distribution of these gives some idea of the relative population of different parts of the country. In Wales, where there was a state of almost unceasing war, and no fixed county organisation, the boundaries given are only approximate, showing the area generally held by the Lords Marcher during the 12th and 13th centuries. For a more detailed treatment of Wales in the 13th century see Plate 29. The territory coloured pink was under the normal administration of the sheriffs and the king's courts, all territory otherwise coloured was under special feudal jurisdiction. These special jurisdictions are all on the frontiers of Wales and Scotland, (a) the Palatinate of Chester with the Welsh Marcher Lordships, (b) the Palatinate of Durham with the Northumbrian franchises of Hexhamshire (Archbishop of York), Tynedale (King of Scots), and Redesdale (D'Umfraville). The Palatinate of Lancaster was a later and artificial creation in honour of John of Gaunt, not necessitated by frontier defence.

The Angevin Empire of Henry II. and Richard I. (Plate 28) —The exact limits of Henry II's supremacy in France are not easy to determine. Many of the great barons of Aquitaine, and especially of its eastern regions, were never effectively brought into obedience, and recognised or repudiated the Angevin supremacy as it suited their convenience. For the loss of the French possessions of Henry II see Plates 13a and 29a, for the Battle of Bouvines see Fig x (p xv). In Ireland, the area coloured dark pink is an approximate indication of the extent of territory brought under the

control of the English conquerors by the end of the 12th century.

England in France, and the English Borders (Plate 29).— 29 (a) illustrates not only the first stage of the Hundred Years' War, but the French wars of Henry III and Edward I. Note the provisions of the Treaty of Paris, 1259.

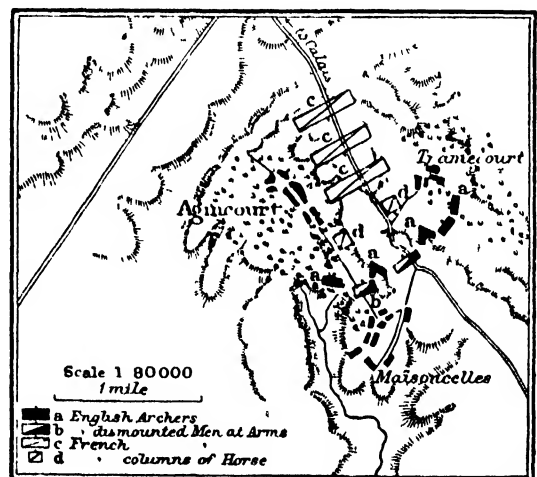


Fig xx —THE BATTLE OF AGINCOURT, 25 OCT., 1415

their number and geographical distribution in the later middle ages, only the more important are named, and no attempt is made to indicate the different orders. The figures after the names of certain towns indicate that in these towns there were several monastic houses, including the Friaries, whose work was concentrated in the towns.

England during the Civil War (Plate 31).—31 (a) shows the results of the campaign of 1643, the change from 31 (a) to 31 (b) shows the results of the campaign of 1644, while 31 (b) shows the results of the campaign of 1645. For the Scottish portion of the war see Plate 33a, for the Irish portion Plate 34b. The Campaign and Battle of Marston Moor are shown in Figs. xxi and xxii, the Battle of Naseby in Fig. xxiii, the Battle of Worcester in Fig. xxvi (p. xxiii).

Scotland in the XI. Century (Plate 32).—Shows the diverse elements out of which the Kingdom of Scotland was welded in the 11th and following centuries: (1) Alban, (2) Moray, (3) Argyll, or Scotland proper, (4) the Norse supremacy over Sutherland and the Isles, (5) the British kingdom of Strathclyde (with Galloway), and (6) the Northumbrian region of Lothian. For the relations between England and Scotland in the Middle Ages, see Plate 29d.

The Modern History of Scotland (Plate 33).—33 (a) illustrates the Reformation period, the troubles of Queen Mary of Scots, the part played by Scotland in the Puritan Revolution, and the campaigns of Montrose. 33 (b) illustrates the Persecution and the risings in the time of the later Stuarts, the Revolution, the Jacobite rebellions, and the general development of modern Scotland. These maps should be read in conjunction with Plate 32. The latter shows district names such as Kyle, Badenoch, Buchan, 33 (a) shows clan and family names, 33 (b) shows county divisions. In 33 (a) note the Highland line. The Battle of Dunbar is shown in Fig. xxv p. (xxii).

Ireland (Plate 34).—34 (a) illustrates the mediæval history of Ireland, and indicates the distribution of the principal Irish septs and Norman families. 34 (c) contains the names of all places of importance in the tragical history of Ireland during the 16th, 17th and 18th centuries. 34 (b) shows in summary the resettlement of Irish land either by confiscation or by regrant to the native proprietors, during the Tudor and early Stuart periods, 34 (d) the high handed and unjust confiscation of lands proposed and partly carried out by Cromwell.

The United Kingdom—Parliamentary Representation (Plate 35).—Shows the system of parliamentary representation existing before 1832: (1) The student should note the areas where names, i.e., constituencies, are most abundant, the table of references gives the total number of members elected in each county. To some extent the counties most largely represented, e.g., Wiltshire (centre of the woollen trade) were the most populous. In other cases (e.g., Cornwall) this was not so. (2) The boroughs in England whose names are printed in the smallest type, were the rotten boroughs disfranchised by the Reform Act. Note their number.



Fig. xxi.—BATTLE OF MARSTON MOOR, 2 JULY, 1644



Fig. xxi.—CAMPAIGN OF MARSTON MOOR.

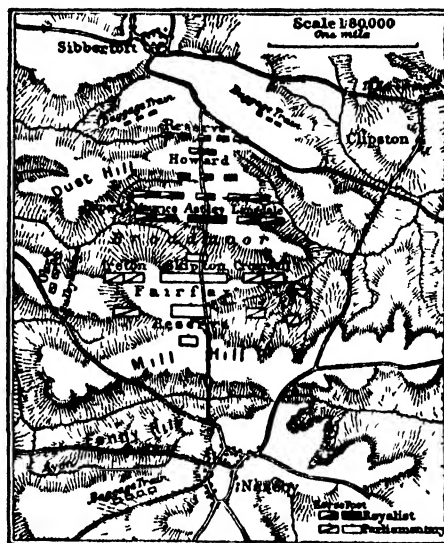


Fig. xxiii.—THE BATTLE OF NASEBY 14 JUNE 1645

England and the Industrial Revolution (Plate 36).—Shows the effects of the Industrial Revolution in regard to distribution of population, the rise of large towns on the coalfield areas, and the localisation of industries. In 36 (a) only those parts of the coalfields are shown which were actually worked. A number of towns which were important as market towns, are shown in 36 (a), but there are only six towns shown on 36 (a) which would be qualified

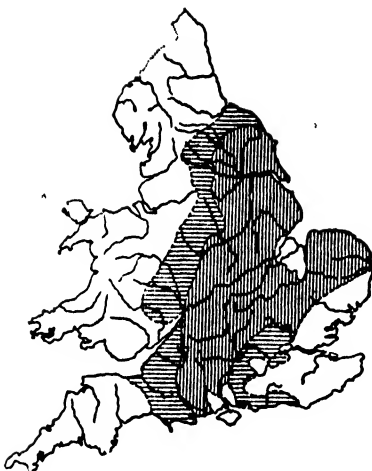


Fig. XXIV.—ENCLOSURES IN ENGLAND IN THE 18TH CENTURY

The area shaded vertically was mainly or largely cultivated on the open field system in 1700, the area shaded horizontally was partially and sporadically cultivated on this system

to be shown at all on 36 (b), where no town of less than 10,000 is figured. The method of colouring for population which has been adopted is based upon the population of counties as a whole and therefore does not bring out with precision the main centres of population in either map. But it is only on the basis of counties that any trustworthy estimates for 1701 could be obtained. Apart from London, the most populous area in 1701 was the Wiltshire woollen region, and next to it those of Yorkshire and Norfolk. In 36 (b) the student should note the extraordinary aggregation of large towns in five small areas: (1) the neighbourhood of London, (2) S Lancashire and S W Yorkshire, (3) S Northumberland and Durham, (4) the W Midlands, and (5) Glamorgan and Monmouth. Each of these forms almost a single urban area, and all with the exception of London, are on coalfields. The main facts of the Agrarian Revolution of the 18th century, so far as they can be indicated by a map, are illustrated in Fig. XXIV, which shows the part of England still largely cultivated on the open field system at the beginning of the 18th century. This area had been practically entirely enclosed before 1901. The enclosure of open fields (i.e. arable) must be distinguished from the enclosure of commons or wastes, which went on concurrently, but which it has not been found practicable to illustrate.

SECTION IV.—THE EUROPEANISATION OF THE WORLD. PLATES 37—48.

The general object of this section is (1) to trace in a series of general maps the course of world exploration, the part taken by the various European states in each period in colonising work, and the growth of European geographical conceptions—this last point being illustrated by a series of reproductions of contemporary maps, on which shadow-maps of the world are superimposed, to show how far and where they were wrong, (2) to illustrate in detail the history of those regions in which the British race has been chiefly concerned during the last three centuries. A fuller treatment will be given to both of these groups, and more adequate attention will be given to non-British regions, in the Students' Edition of this Atlas.

The Europeanisation of the World (Plates 37—40).—These maps give the general history of exploration and colonisation down to the middle of the 19th century. In each map that part of the world which at the date of the map was either unknown or not brought under European influence is coloured pale buff. The routes of some of the chief explorers are marked on each map, except the last, on which the principal ocean-tracks followed by commerce before the age of steam are figured. Two maps illustrating the main features of Arctic and Antarctic exploration will be found on Plate 40. Note carefully the series of contemporary maps showing the current ideas of the form of the world at the time of the settlements shown in the main maps above; these serve to explain many things, such as the theory of the N.-W. Passage, see Schöner's Map, (Plate 37c), and Mercator's Map (Plate 38b). Note in Plate 37 the predominance of Spain and Portugal, in Plate 38 the world-wide activity of the Dutch, and especially Tasman's exploration of Australia, in Plate 39 the predominance of England as a result of her victory over France in America and India, in Plate 40 the still more striking predominance of England, at that period almost the only active colonising power, and the development of the chief European colonies in N. and S. America into independent states.

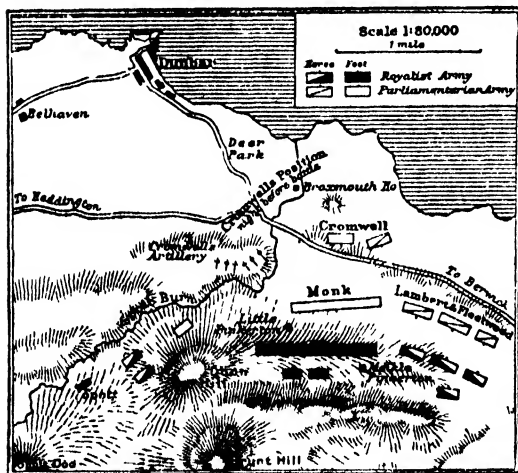


Fig. XXV.—THE BATTLE OF DUNBAR, 3 SEPTEMBER, 1650

West Indies and Central America (Plate 41).—The West Indies and Central America were the field of the rivalry of all the maritime nations from the middle of the 16th to the beginning of the 19th century. The confusing changes in ownership of the lesser islands, at first chiefly haunted by buccaneers, are shown in detail in the larger map, while the smaller maps illustrate the position of the various competing powers at intervals of about a century. The history of the Spanish Empire is also partially illustrated. For South America see Plates 37—40; S. America will be separately and fully dealt with in the Student's Edition of this atlas.

The Colonisation of North America (Plates 42—43).—These maps illustrate fully the colonisation of N. America by the European States, the rivalry of England and France, and the establishment of the United States. The two maps should be used in conjunction in order that the influence of physical factors, which is nowhere more clearly demonstrable, may be grasped by the student. Note that the barrier of the Alleghenies shut the English into the coastal fringe, while the St. Lawrence, cutting through the mountain-line, led the French by an easy path to the Great Lakes and the Mississippi Valley. Note in Plate 44 the wide distribution of

French forts and stations along the Lakes and down the river route to New Orleans. Note the great water-way of the Hudson, Lake Champlain and the Richelieu, leading directly from the centre of the English settlements to the centre of the French settlements, on this line there is much fighting. Note that the Mohawk Valley is the only effective breach

in the mountain-barrier within reach of the English, and observe the importance of the position of the Iroquois Indians, controlling this line and threatening at once the French and the English. Note in 43 (b) the confused and sporadic early settlements in New England and in 43 (c) the way in which the Dutch and Swedish settlements divided the English settlements and by way of the Hudson rendered possible a link with the French. A more detailed treatment of the chief historical areas of North America, and of the American Civil War, will be given in the Student's Edition of this Atlas

The Growth of Canada and the United States (Plate 44).—In British North America note the stages in the organisation of the dominion —(1) from 1793 Upper and Lower Canada are separate colonies, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Prince Edward's Island and Newfoundland also each independent, (2) 1841 Upper and Lower Canada united, (3) 1867 the Dominion formed, including the two Canadas, Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, (4) the opening out of the west by the Canadian-Pacific Railway, British Columbia added to the Dominion (1871), and the organisation of the western territories, which in 1905 became states of the Dominion. Note both in Canada and the United States the vital importance of the great trans-continental railways in binding together these vast territories, until the age of railways, democratic communities on so vast a scale would have been impossible. Note the boundary questions (a) in Maine, (b) in

Oregon, settled at a time when all parties in England anticipated the early union of Canada with the United States. In Maine, a wedge of foreign territory is thrust almost to the St. Lawrence, and has to be crossed by the chief railway. In the United States note that the settlement of the territory west of the Alleghenies did not begin until after the American Revolution (cf. dates of Ohio, Kentucky, etc.) Note also the importance of the Louisiana purchase and the conquest of the rest of American territory from the Spanish-American power of Mexico.

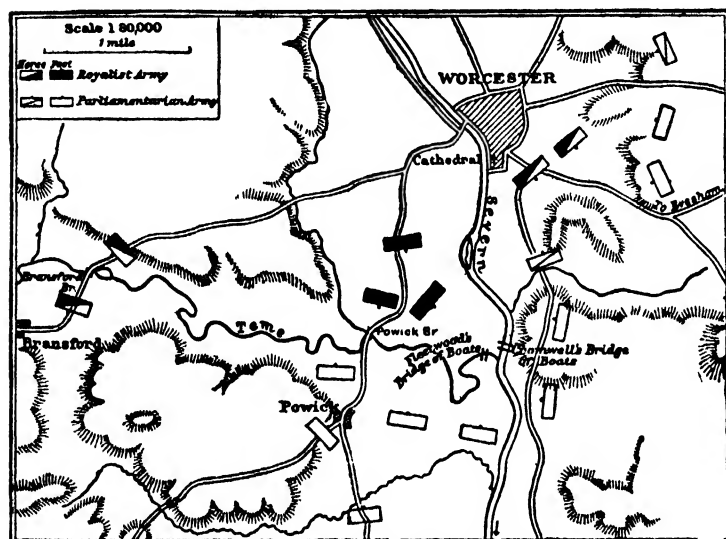


Fig. XXVI.—THE BATTLE OF WORCESTER, 3 SEPTEMBER, 1651

The Growth of British Power in India (Plate 45)—Illustrates in detail the growth of the British power in India down to the close of the governor-generalship of Wellesley. The earlier history of India and of Southern Asia will be treated in the Student's Edition of this Atlas. The first map is physically coloured, in order to bring out the historical effects of the conformation of the country, and the two maps should be used in conjunction. Note (1) that the Deccan or Southern Peninsula is naturally distinct, and has a different history, from the Gangetic Valley, hence the growth of British

power in the Carnatic is largely a separate story from that of the British power in Bengal, the Governors of Madras being chiefly concerned with the great powers of the Southern Uplands and Coastal Plain—the Carnatic, Mysore and Hyderabad, while the Governor of Calcutta was concerned with the Nabobs of Bengal and Oudh and the Great Mogul at Delhi. But note (2) that the remarkable geographical position of the Marathas, stretching across India between these two regions, gives a unity to Indian History after their rise, because every power was necessarily brought into relations with them. Hence the Marathas were the most dangerous foes of the British in India. And note (3) that the unity of the scattered British territories in the earlier period was only secured by control of the sea, and that as a consequence of this, early British expansion is mainly aimed at securing the control of the coast-line. It is not till the time of Wellesley that this policy is exchanged for one of territorial supremacy. His work falls into three stages: (1) the assumption of control over the Deccan by the annexation of the Carnatic and of the greater part of Mysore, and the reduction of the rest of Mysore and of the Nizam to subsidiary alliance, (2) the assumption of control over the Ganges valley by the annexation of the Doab and the reduction of Oudh and the Mogul to dependence, (3) the attempt to subjugate the Marathas, which was stopped when half achieved and had to be completed by Lord Hastings (see Plate 46).

India in 1858 (Plate 46)—The chief features of the advance of the British power in India during the 19th century are: (1) the final subjugation of the Marathas (1817-18), (2) the assumption of direct rule in a number of inland states, including Mysore, Nagpore, Oudh, Sattara, etc., (3) a rapid advance towards a defensible natural frontier on the N.W. in the Sind War (1843) and the Sikh War (1845-6 and 1848-9), and (4) the conquest of Burma on the East. The map also illustrates the Mutiny.

The Europeanisation of Africa (Plate 47).—Though the coast of Africa was fully known before that of any other part of the World outside of Europe, this continent, as a whole, was the last to be brought under European

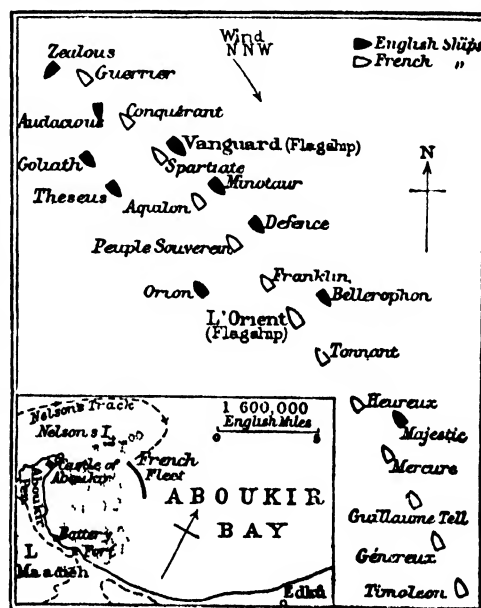


Fig. XXVII.—THE BATTLE OF THE NILE, 1 AUGUST 1798

influence or control This was because the coast, every-where inhospitable, is everywhere backed either by deserts or by malarious jungle, while all the great rivers (except the Nile) were long prevented from being made highways to the inland plateau by falls near their mouths, where they descend from the plateau, and by the malarious character of their lower reaches, Africa is like a nut with a very hard kernel, and was neglected so long as more easily accessible lands were available to the ambitions of colonising nations. Towards the end of the 19th century when Europe had come to an end of revolutionary changes after the Franco-German War, the suddenly awakened colonial ambitions of the powers found Africa almost the only unappropriated region of the world Hence the rapidity with which it was partitioned amongst them, which (with the aid of gradations of colour according to date) is shown in Map (a) In 47 (c)—West Africa

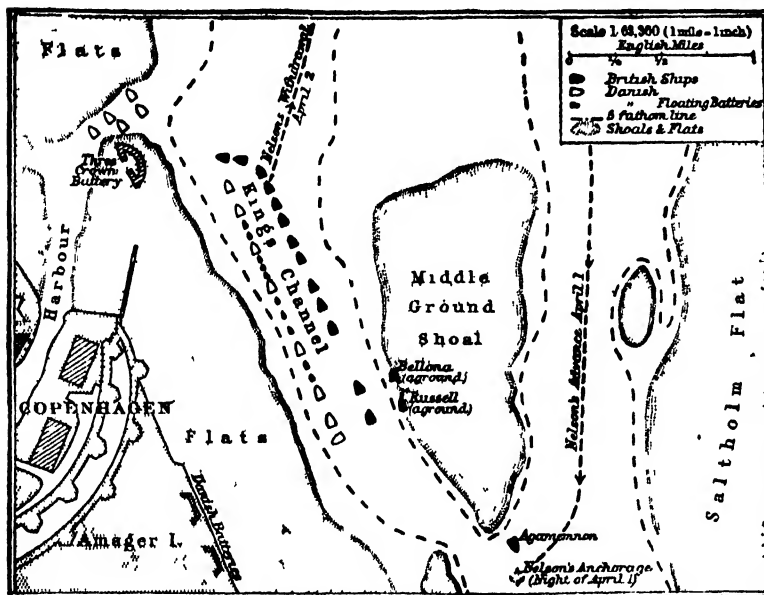


Fig xxviii—BATTLE OF COPENHAGEN, 2 APRIL, 1801

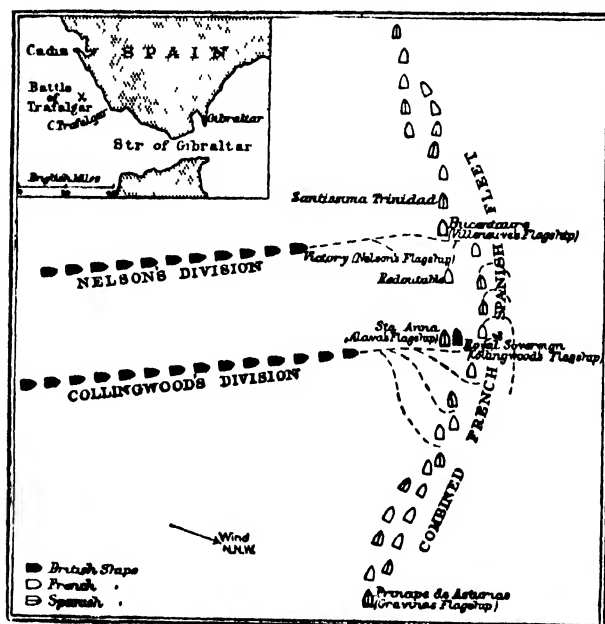


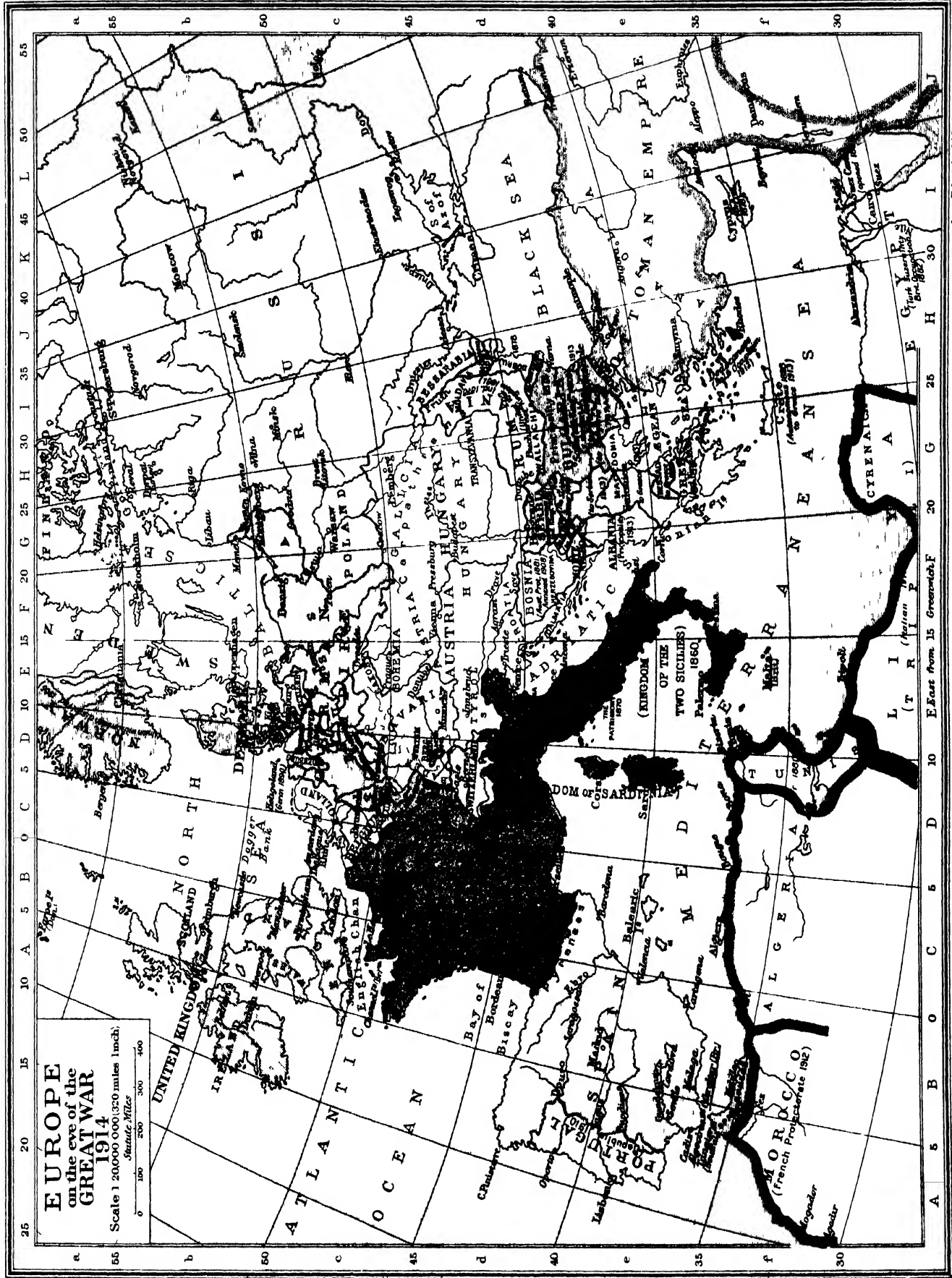
Fig xxix—BATTLE OF TRAFALGAR, 21 OCTOBER 1805

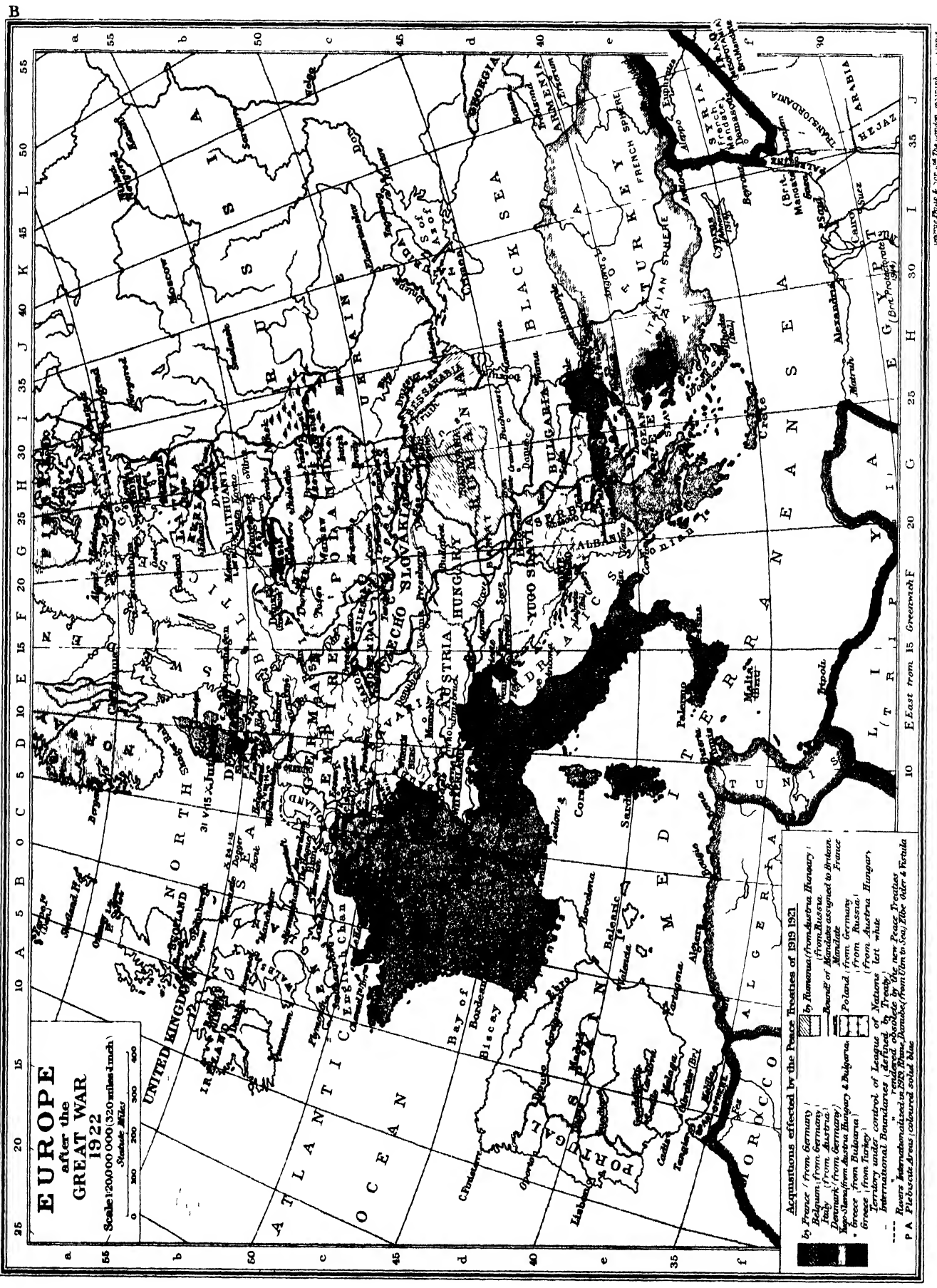
—note the numerous settlements of the various European powers along the coast of W Africa during the 18th century, chiefly for the purposes of the slave-trade not only Portuguese, Dutch, French, and English, but Danes and Prussians founding trading stations, which frequently changed hands, and in no cases carried with them extended territorial power Note the recently established predominance of France. Great Britain, however, controlling two of the three most valuable river entries into the inland regions In 47 (b)—Cape Colony—note the struggles on the eastern boundary against the Kafirs, and the slow advance of the frontier in that direction—this being the only point at which the English, for a long time, came in contact with warlike native powers. The divisions are those of the Dutch at the time of the English conquest, and give some indication of the extent of the settlement at that date The great variation in the size of the provinces is instructive, the wealth and population of each province being roughly in inverse proportion to its size 47 (d)—Physical—illustrates, with dates, the growth of British power in S Africa

47 (e), gives a fuller treatment of Natal, the main clash-point between the English, the Dutch and the most formidable native tribes Note the repeated attempts of the Boers to control the access to the coast in this direction, first by their early settlements, then in the '80's by the expansion of the New Republic at the expense of the Zulus

The British Settlement of Australasia (Plate 48a)—Happy is the nation that has no history Apart from the Maori wars in New Zealand, the only noteworthy features of the history of Australasia are the dates of the successive settlements, and the chief stages in the exploration of this region, both of which are shown on the map A fuller treatment of this subject will be given in the Students' Edition of this Atlas

The Narrow Seas and the North Atlantic (Plate 48b and c)—48 (b) brings out the narrow and winding channel which separates England from the Continent, and notes the chief of the innumerable naval conflicts of which it has been the scene 48 (c) deals in less detail with the wider field of the North Atlantic, on which the wars, especially of the 18th century, were waged, and especially with Nelson's pre-Trafalgar campaign A fuller treatment of these subjects will be given in the Students' Edition of this Atlas For plans of the Battles of the Nile, Copenhagen and Trafalgar, see Figs xxvii (p xxiii), xxviii, xxix.





EUROPE after the GREAT WAR 1922

Scale 1:200,000,000 (320 miles/1 inch)
Statute Miles

Acquisitions effected by the Peace Treaties of 1919-1921

- by France (from Germany)
- Belgium (from Germany)
- Italy (from Austria)
- Poland (from Germany)
- Yugoslavia (from Austria-Hungary & Bulgaria)
- Greece (from Bulgaria)
- Territory under control of League of Nations (from Turkey)
- International boundaries (defined by Treaty)
- Rivers internationalized in 1920 (from Danube to the Black Sea & Rhine)
- P.A. Plebiscite Areas (coloured solid blue)

Acquisitions effected by the Peace Treaties of 1919-1921

- by Rumania (from Austria-Hungary)
- Serbia (from Austria-Hungary)
- Croatia (from Austria-Hungary)
- Slovenia (from Austria-Hungary)
- Poland (from Russia)
- France (from Germany)
- Italy (from Austria-Hungary)
- Greece (from Turkey)
- Territory under control of League of Nations (from Turkey)
- International boundaries (defined by Treaty)
- Rivers internationalized in 1920 (from Danube to the Black Sea & Rhine)
- P.A. Plebiscite Areas (coloured solid blue)

THE WORLD at the Outbreak of GREAT WAR 1914

Triple Alliance

British Empire
Japan (in
alliance with
Britain)

On Mollweide Equivalent Projection
Scale 1:180,000,000

Principal Steamship Routes
Principal Railways

Triple Alliance

Germany
Austria-Hungary
Italy

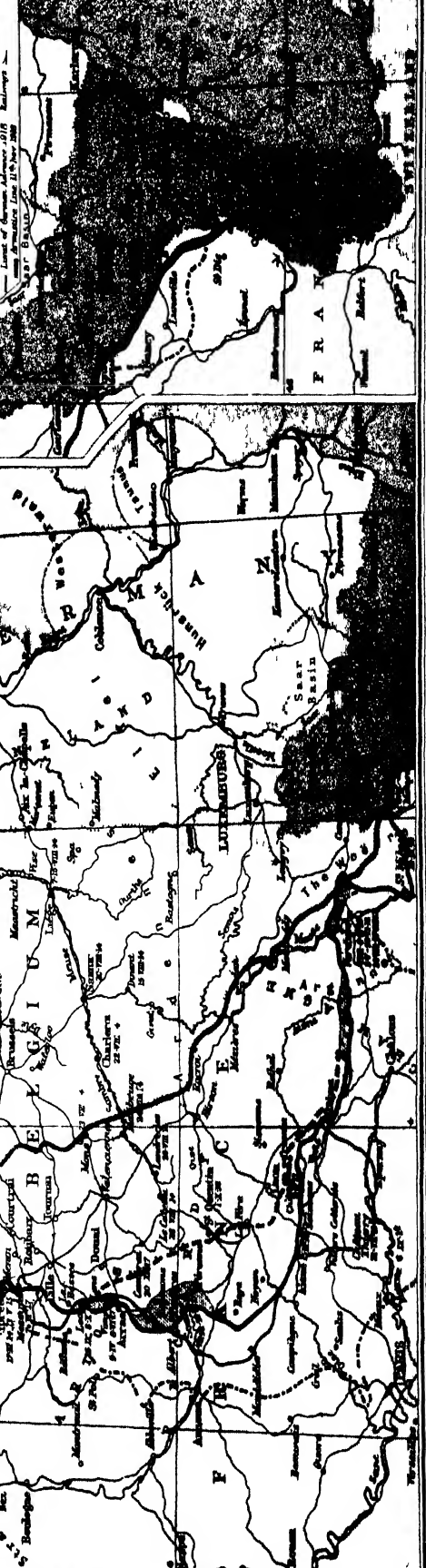
Spain
Portugal
Belgium
Netherlands

United States
Brazil
Argentina

THE WESTERN FRONT

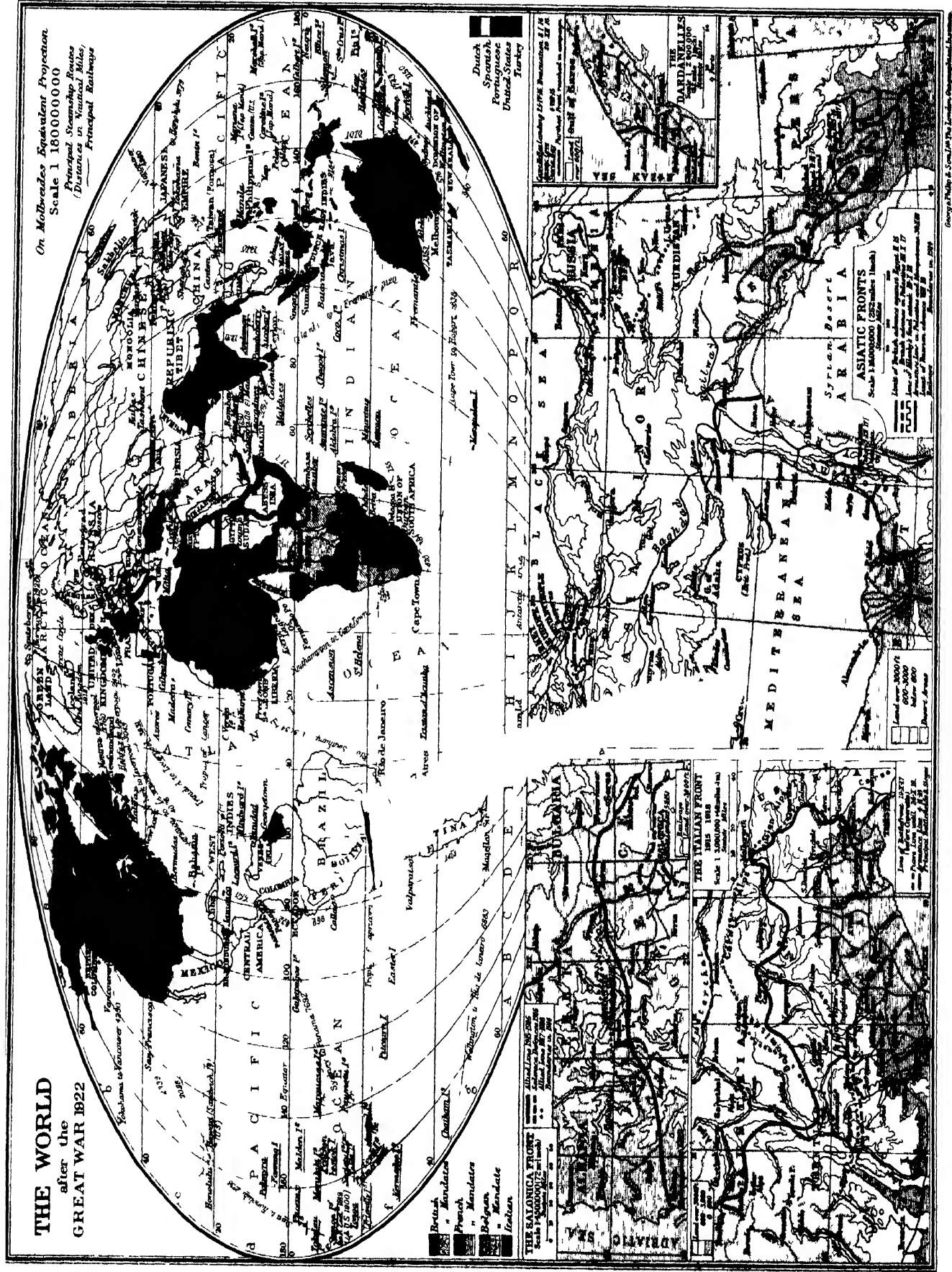
Scale 1:1,000,000
Date: 1st January 1915

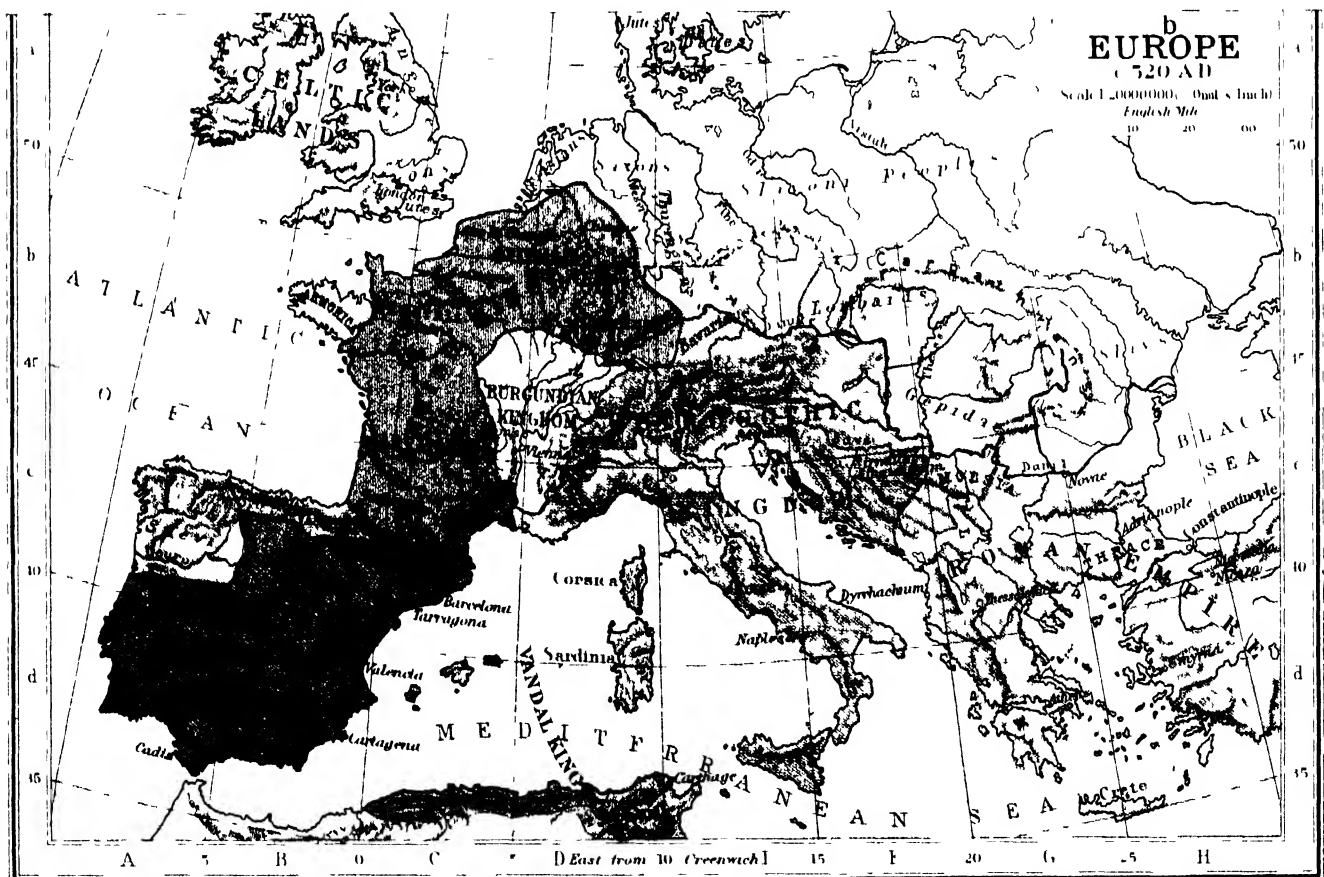
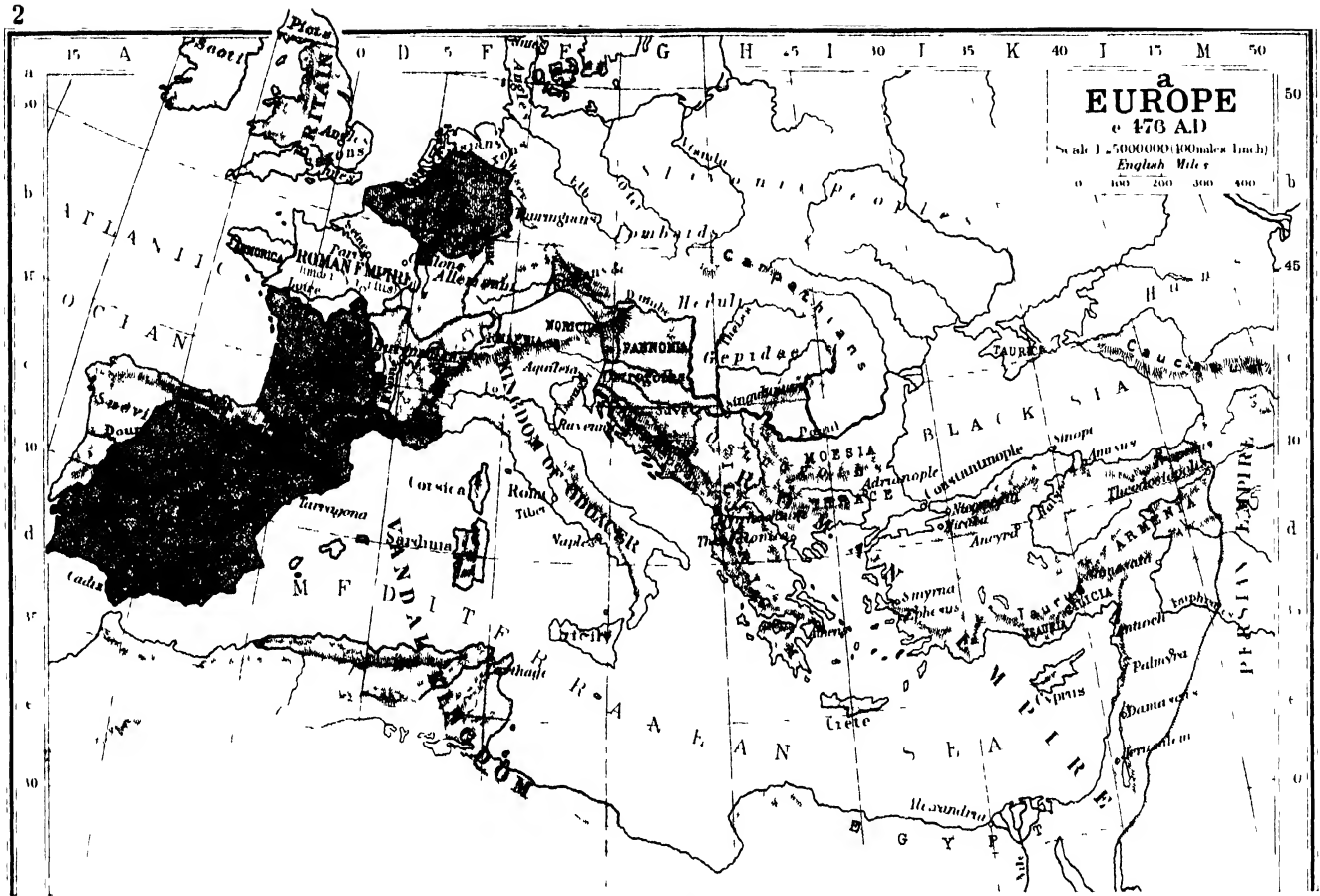
French
German
Belgian
Dutch
British
American
Japanese
Chinese
Russian
Indian
Australian
New Zealand
South African
Canadian
Mexican
Brazilian
Argentinian
Chilean
Peruvian
Colombian
Venezuelan
Cuban
Haitian
Dominican
Puerto Rican
Curaçaoan
Aruban
Surinamese
Guyanese
Jamaican
Trinidadian
Tobagonian
Venezuelan
Cuban
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Tobagonian

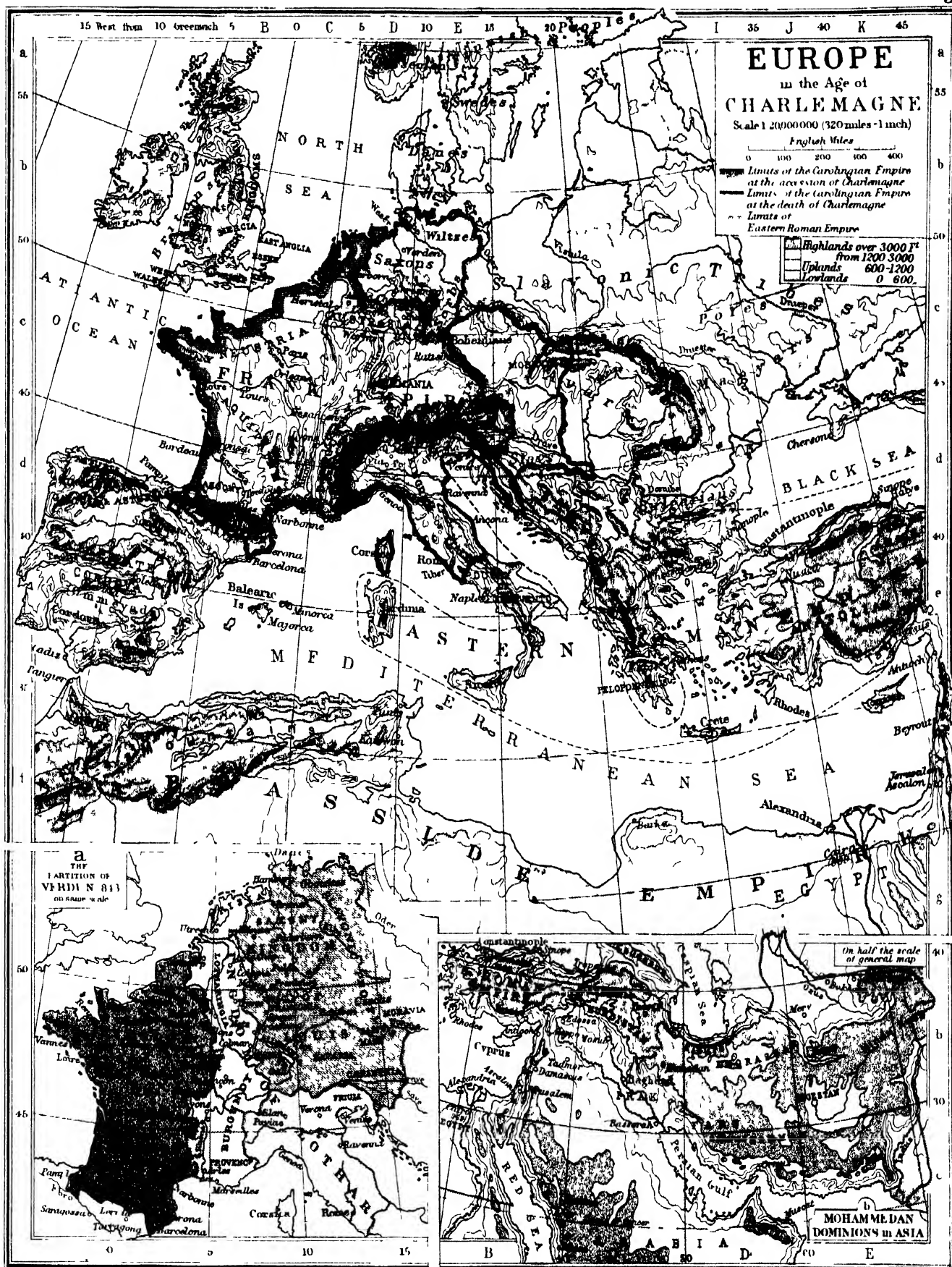


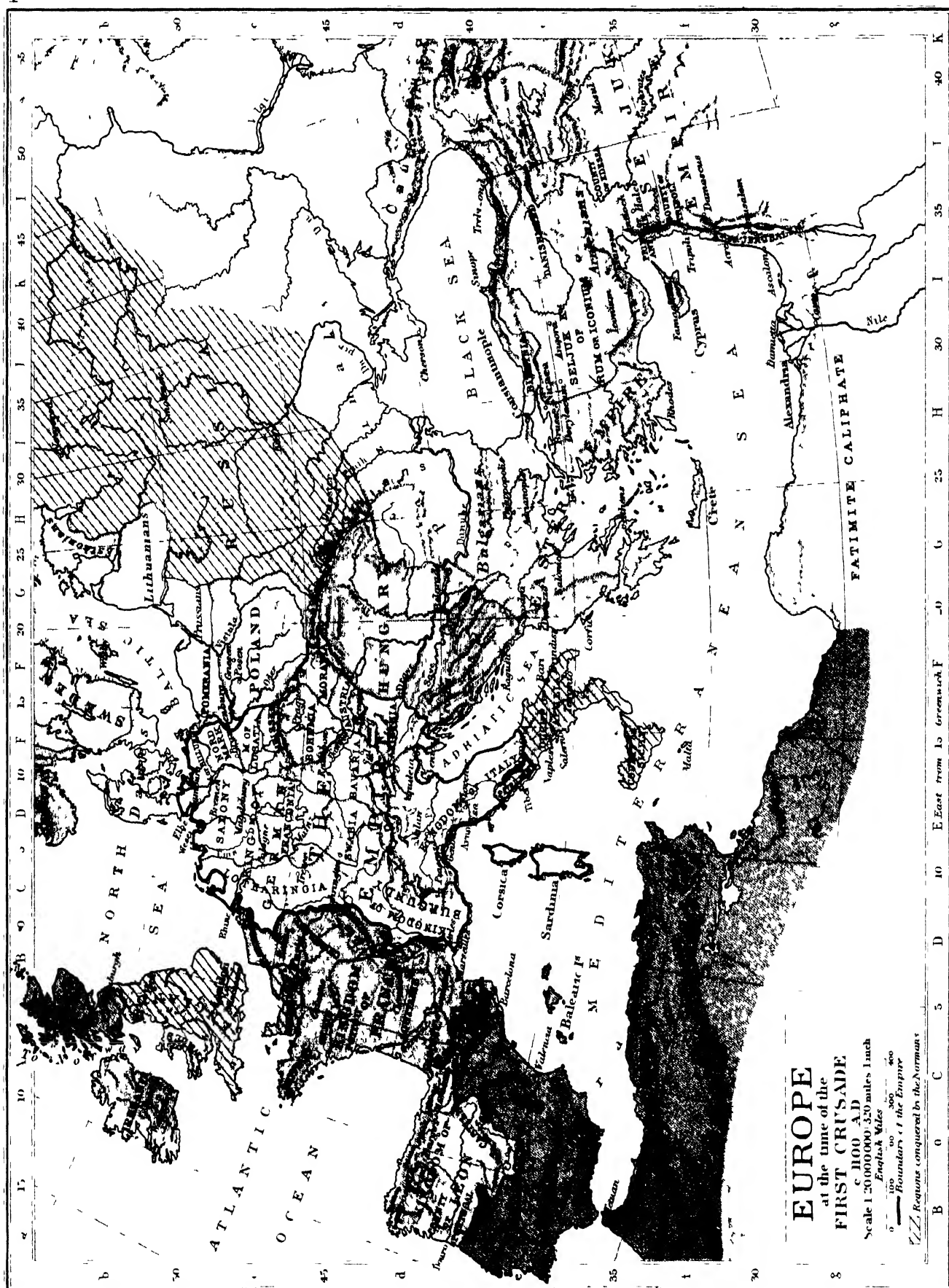
THE WORLD after the GREAT WAR 1922

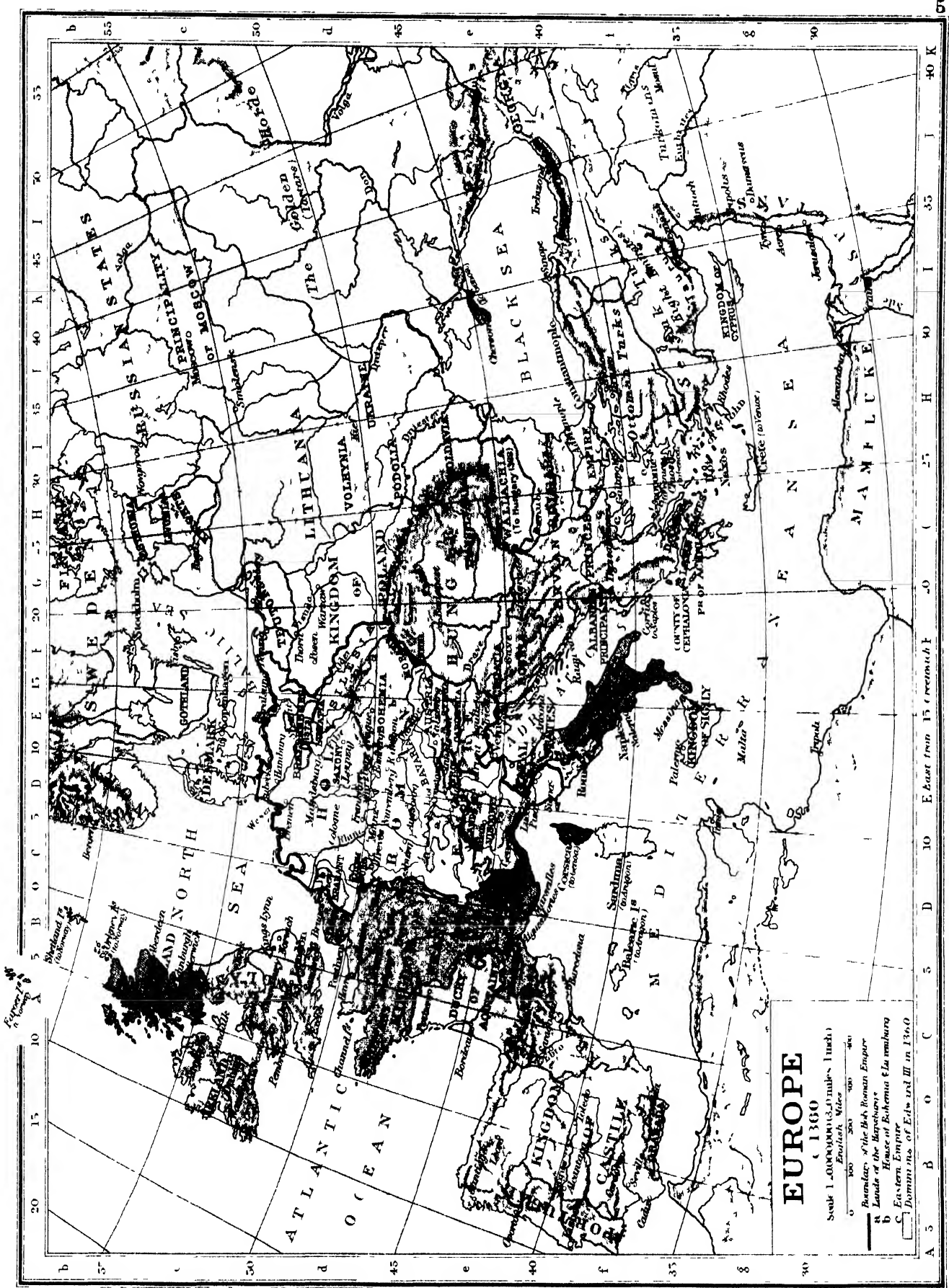
On Mollweides Equivalent Projection
Scale 1:180,000,000
Principal Steamship Routes
(Distances in Nautical Miles)
Principal Railways

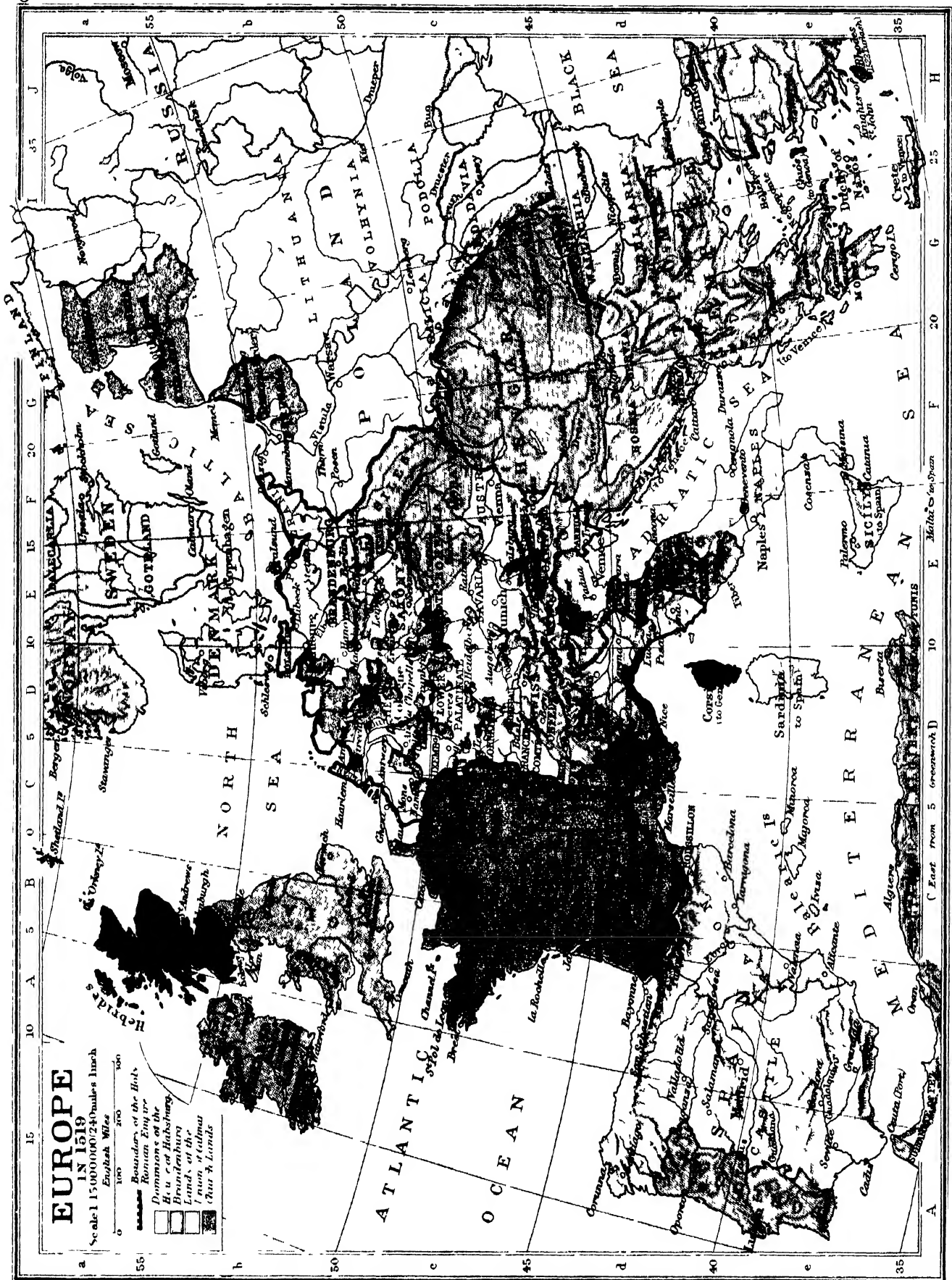






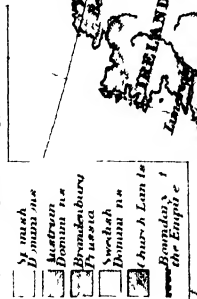






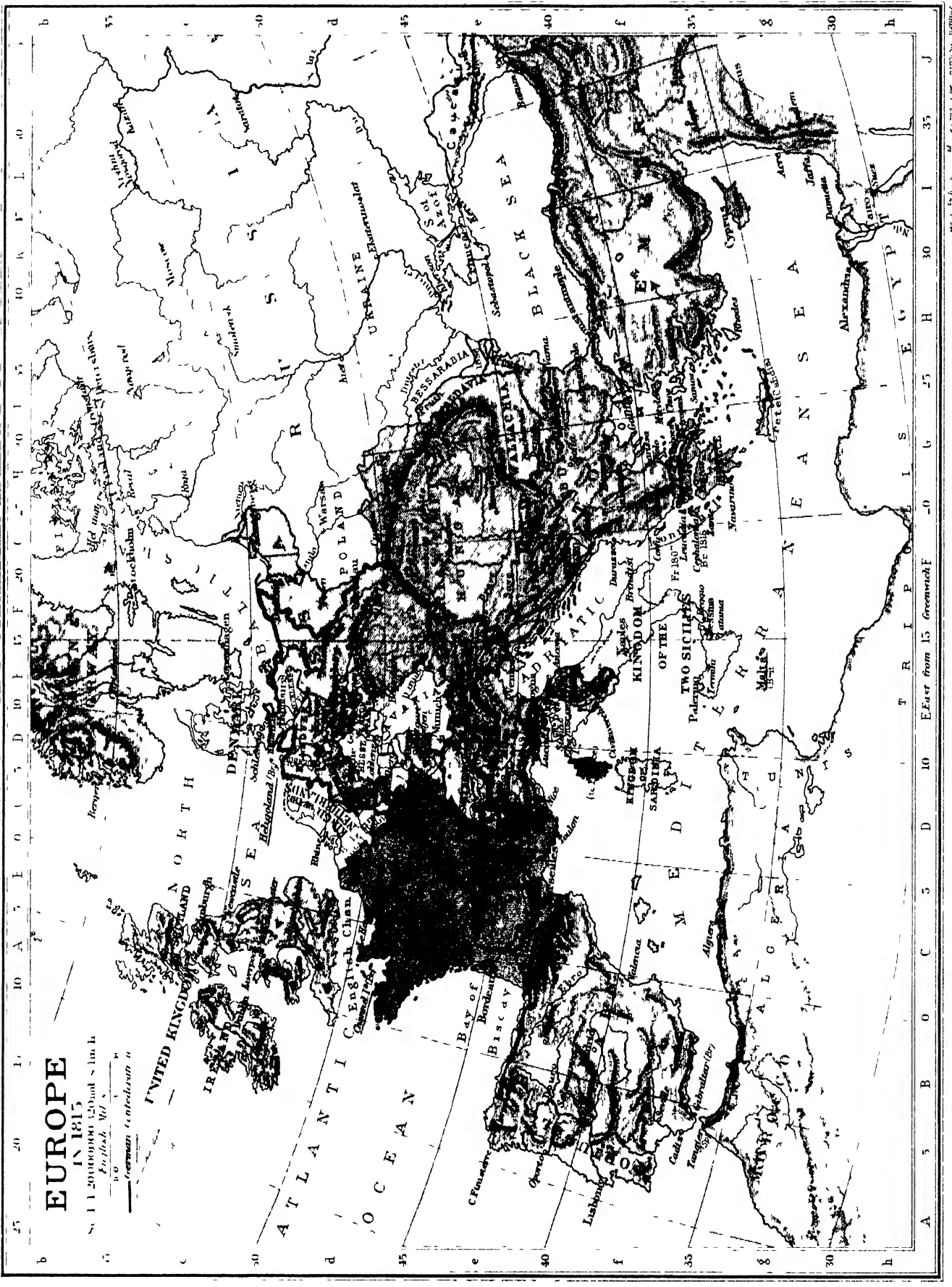
at the
PEACE OF WESTPHALIA
1648

	TOTAL
Scales 15000000	240miles truck
	<i>English Miles</i>
	100 200 300

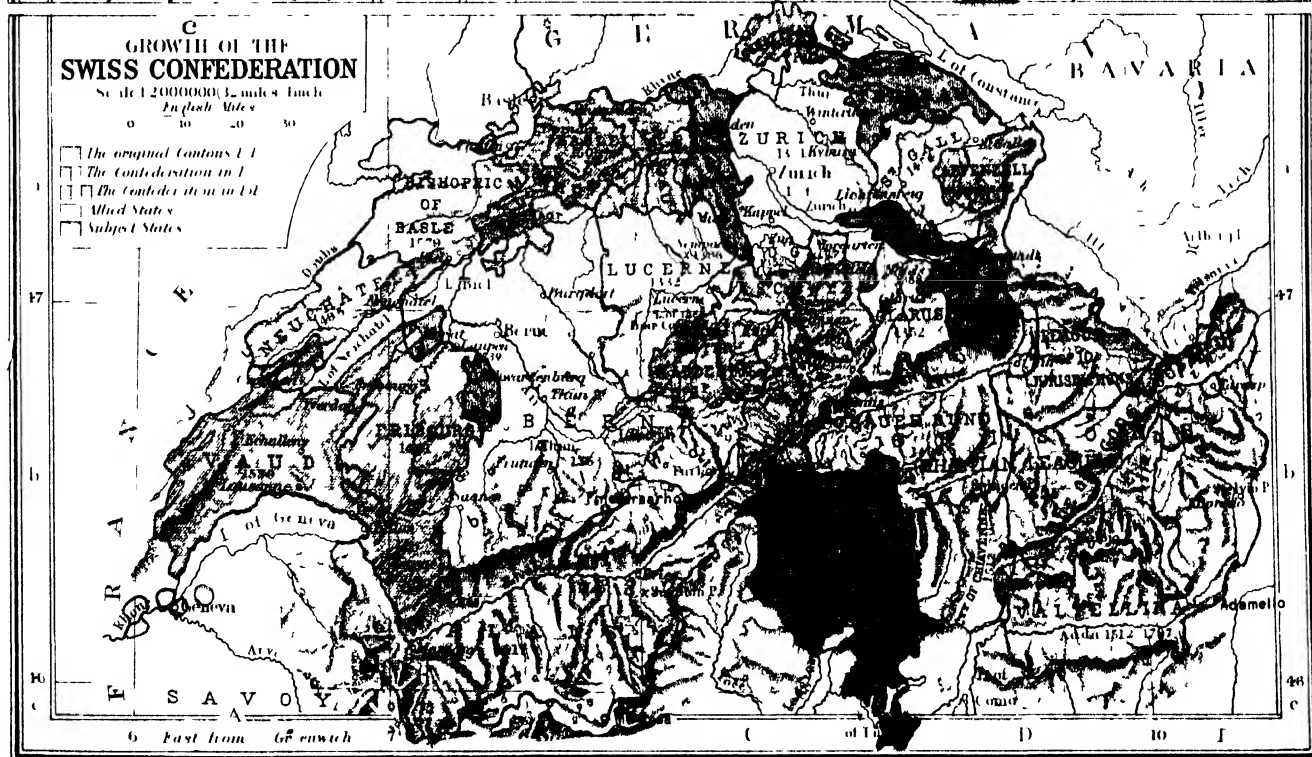
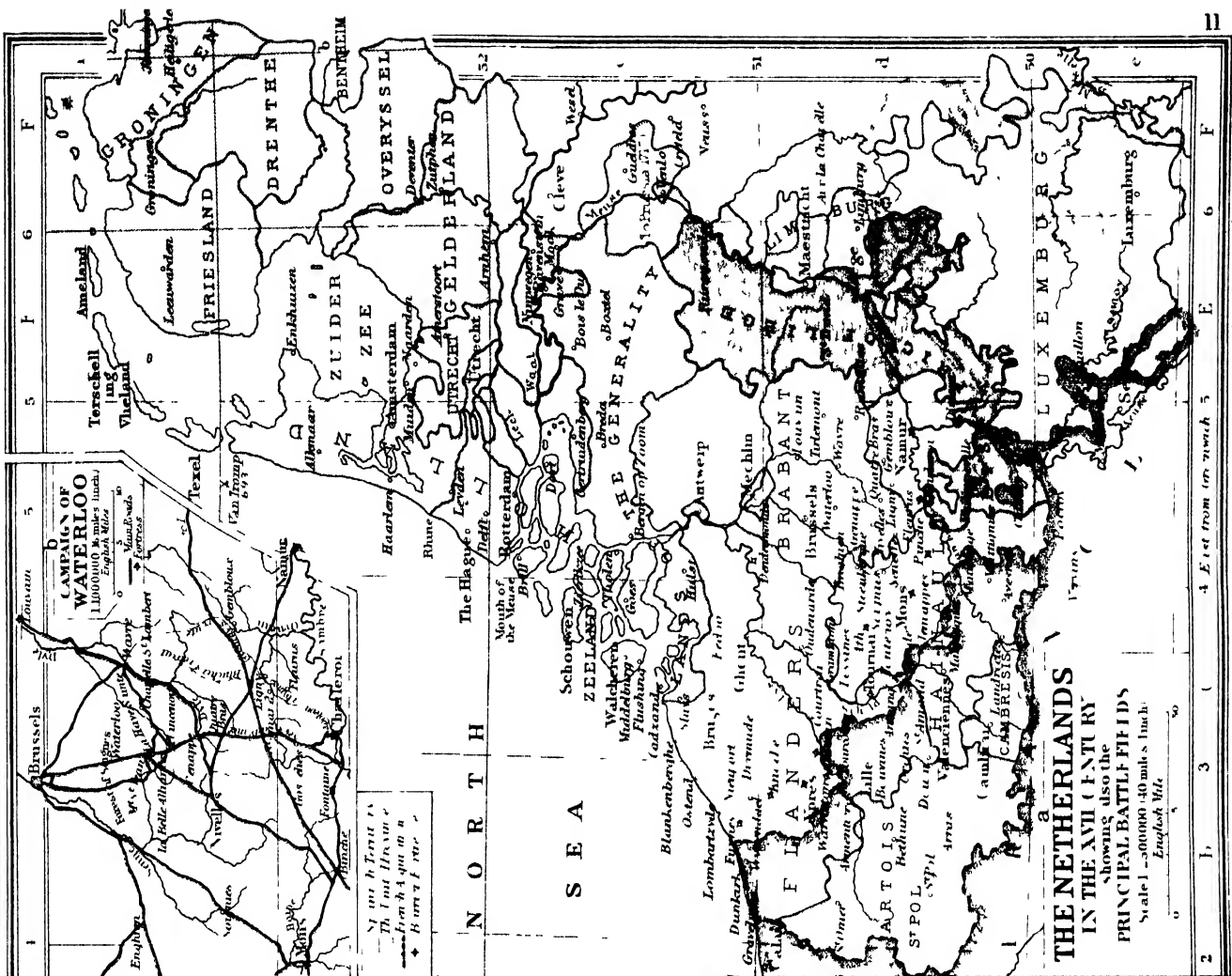






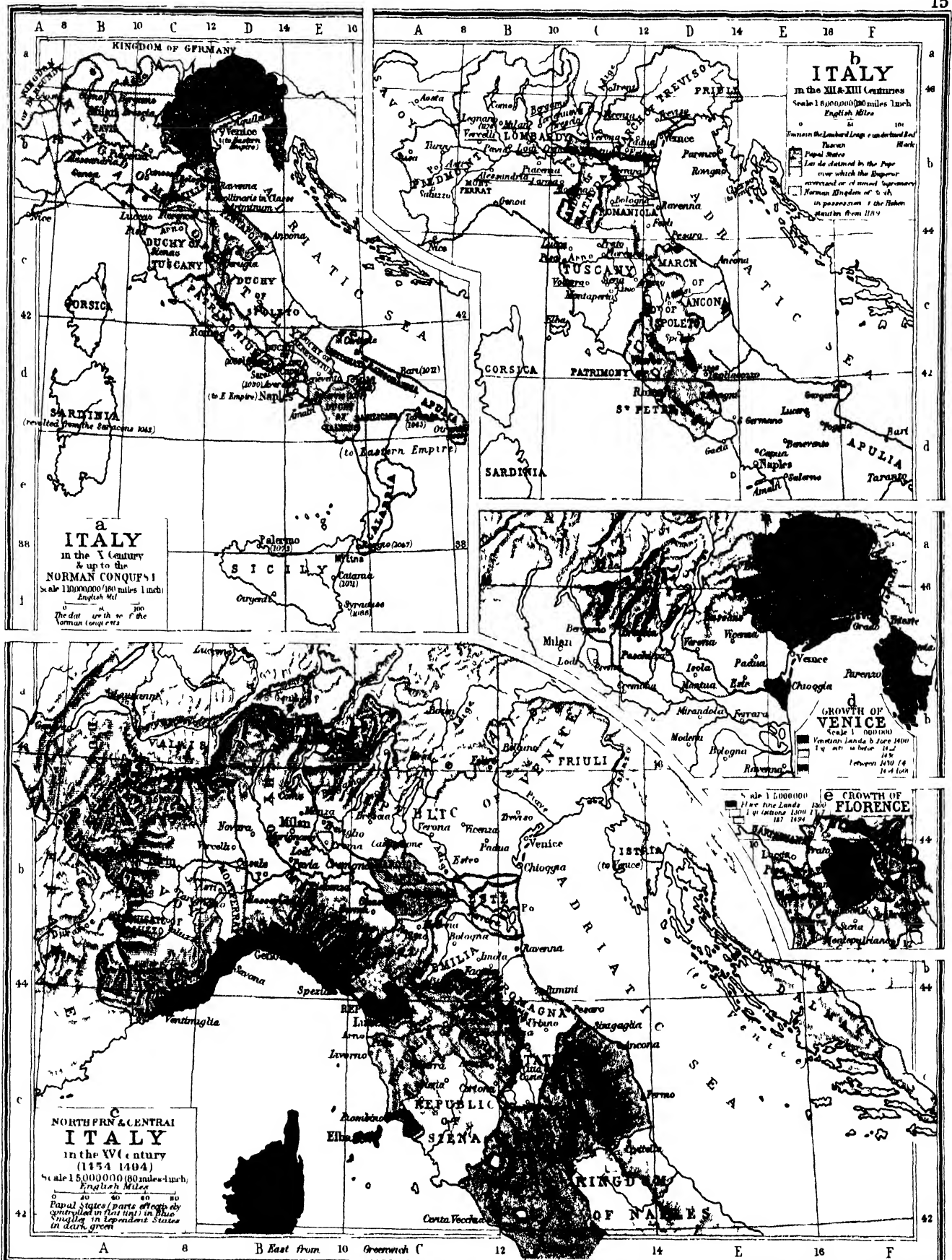


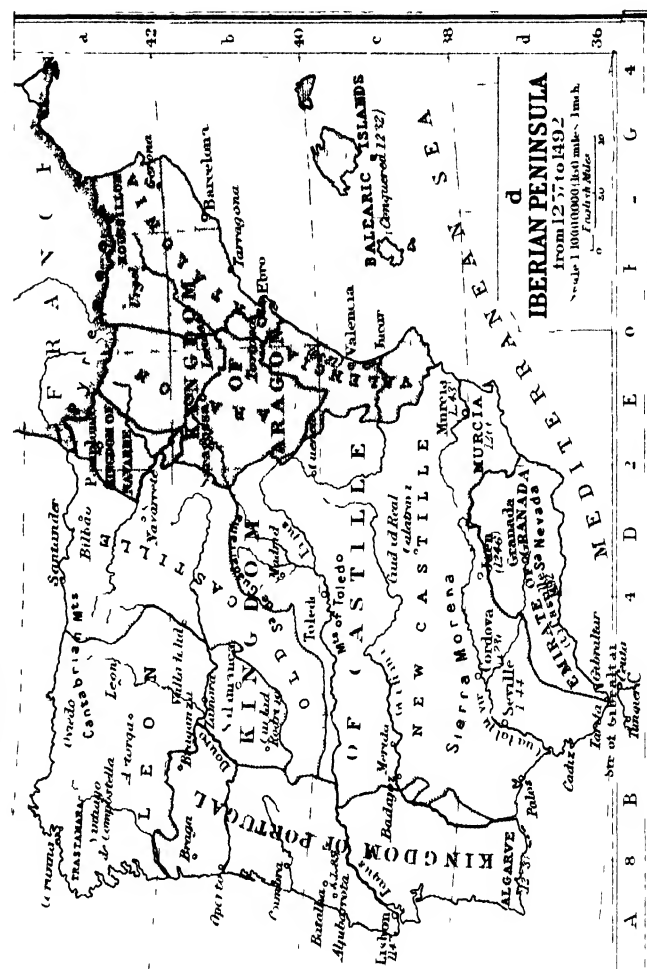
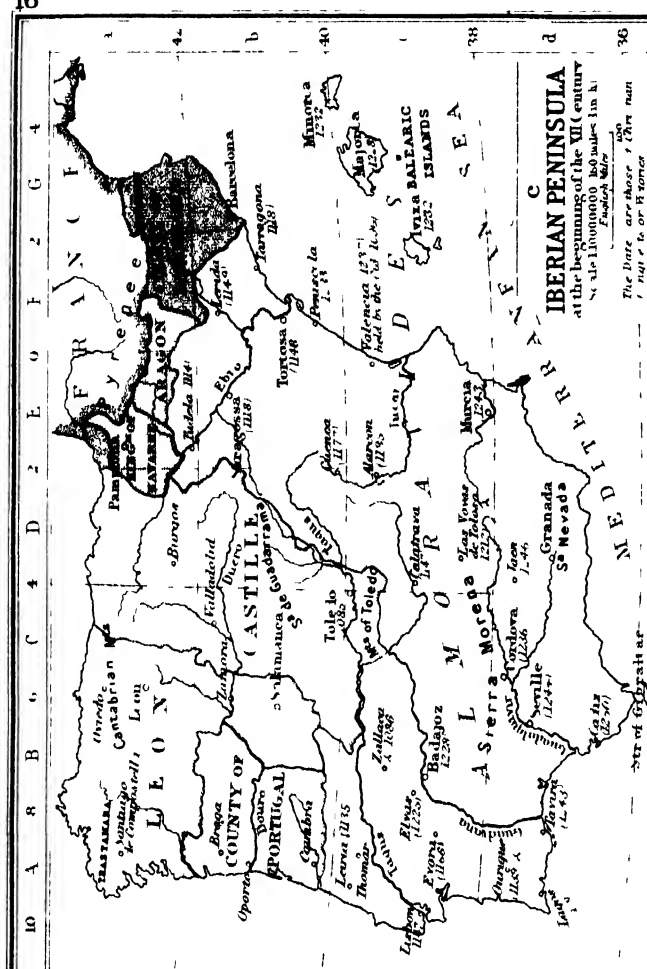
W. & A. Wallingford, London, 1815



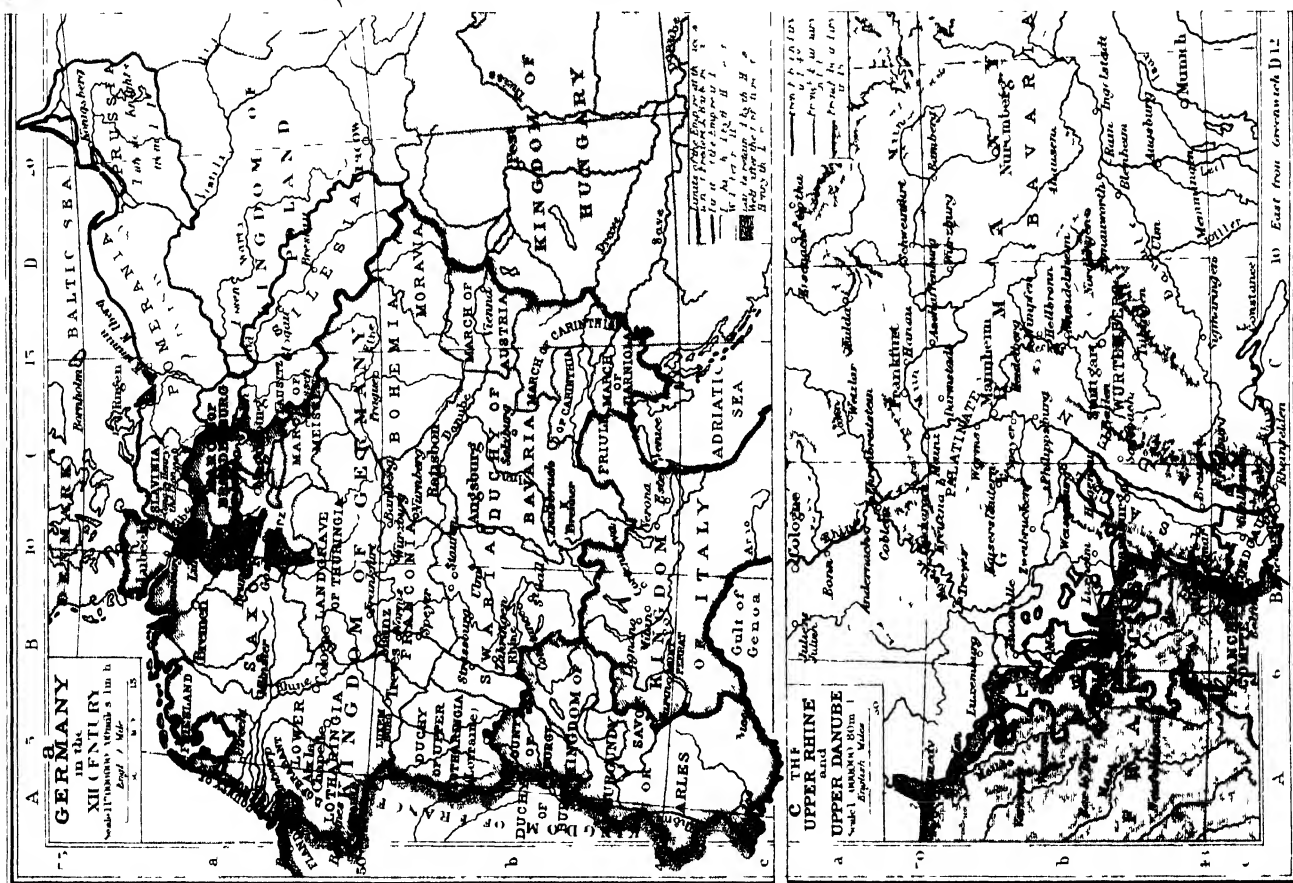
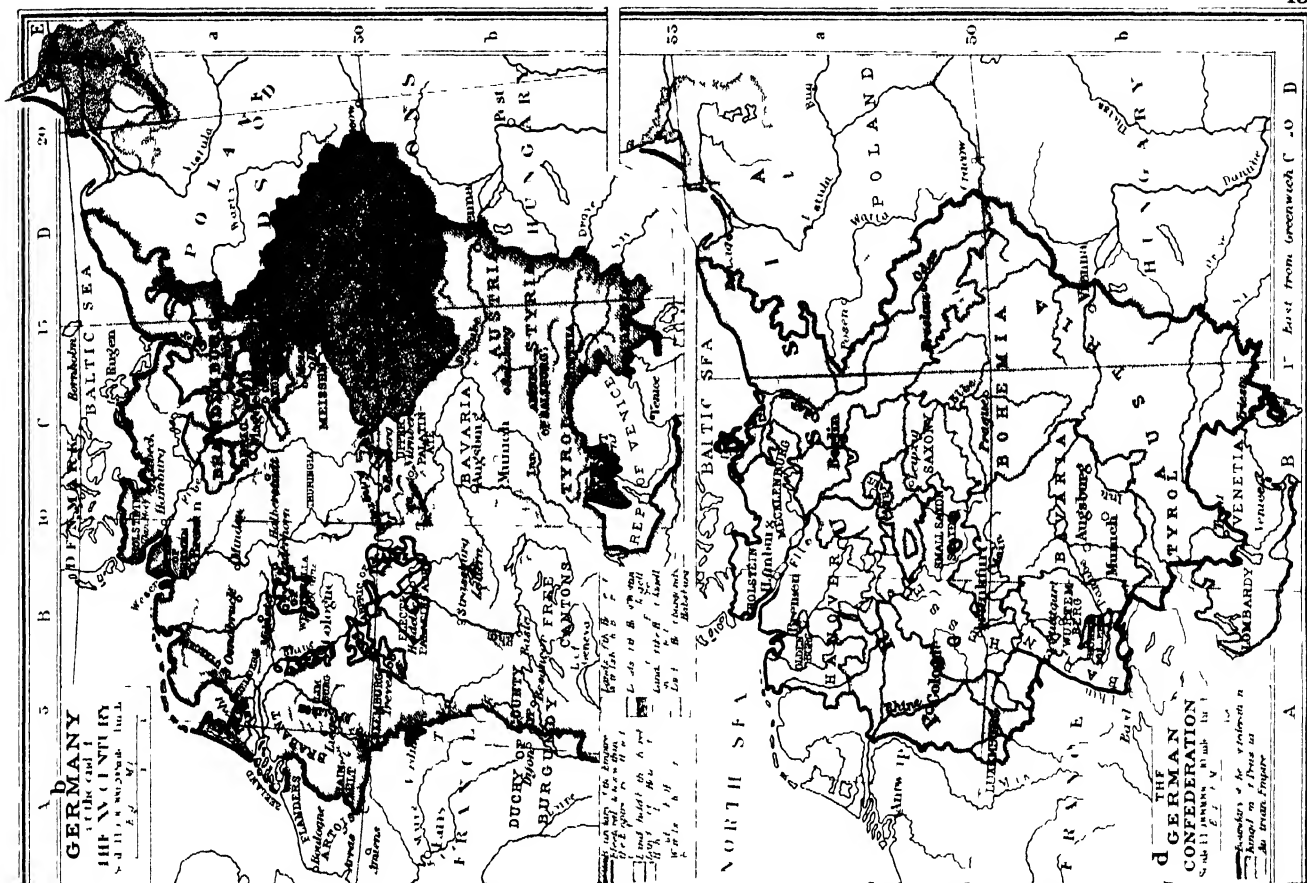


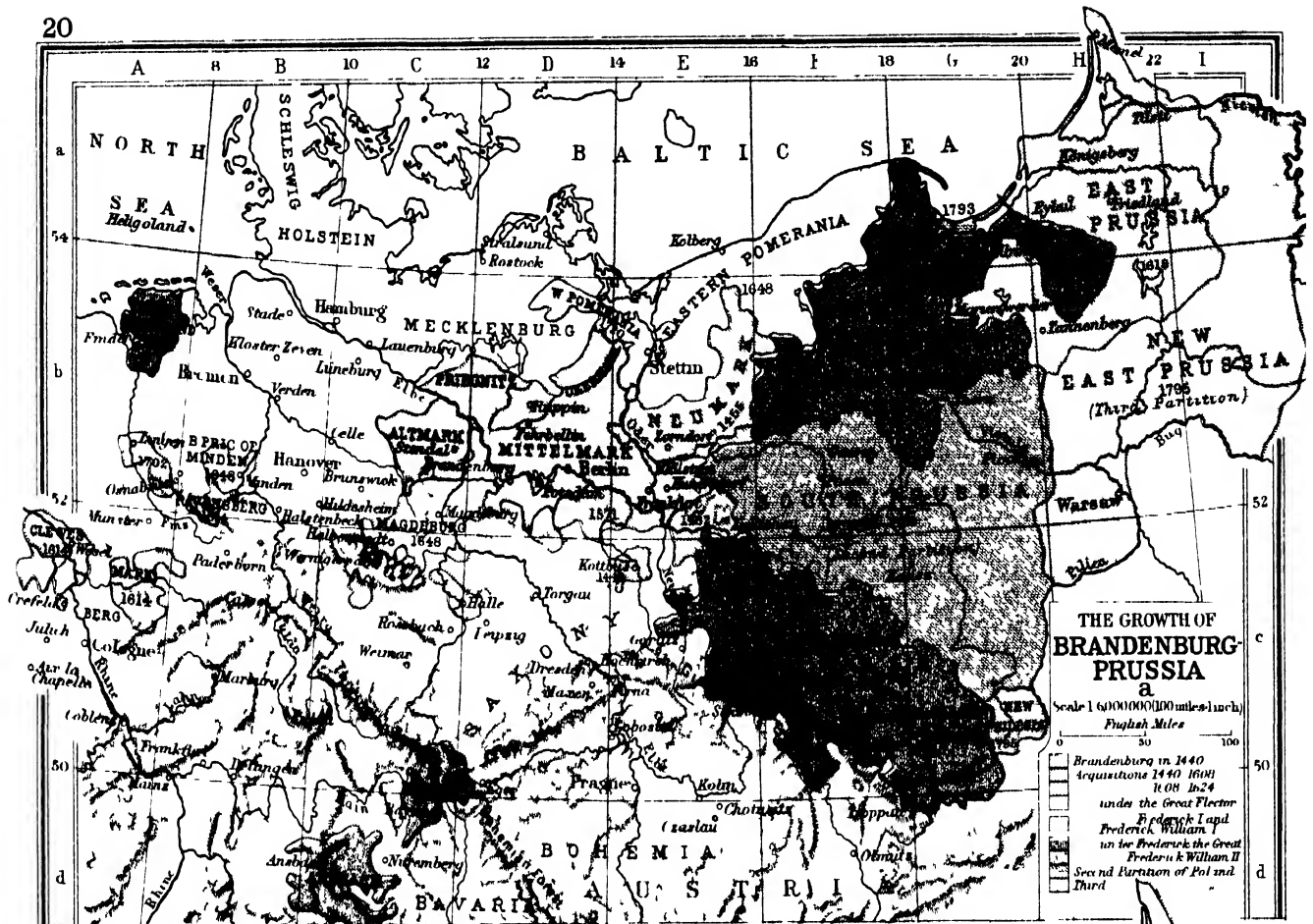


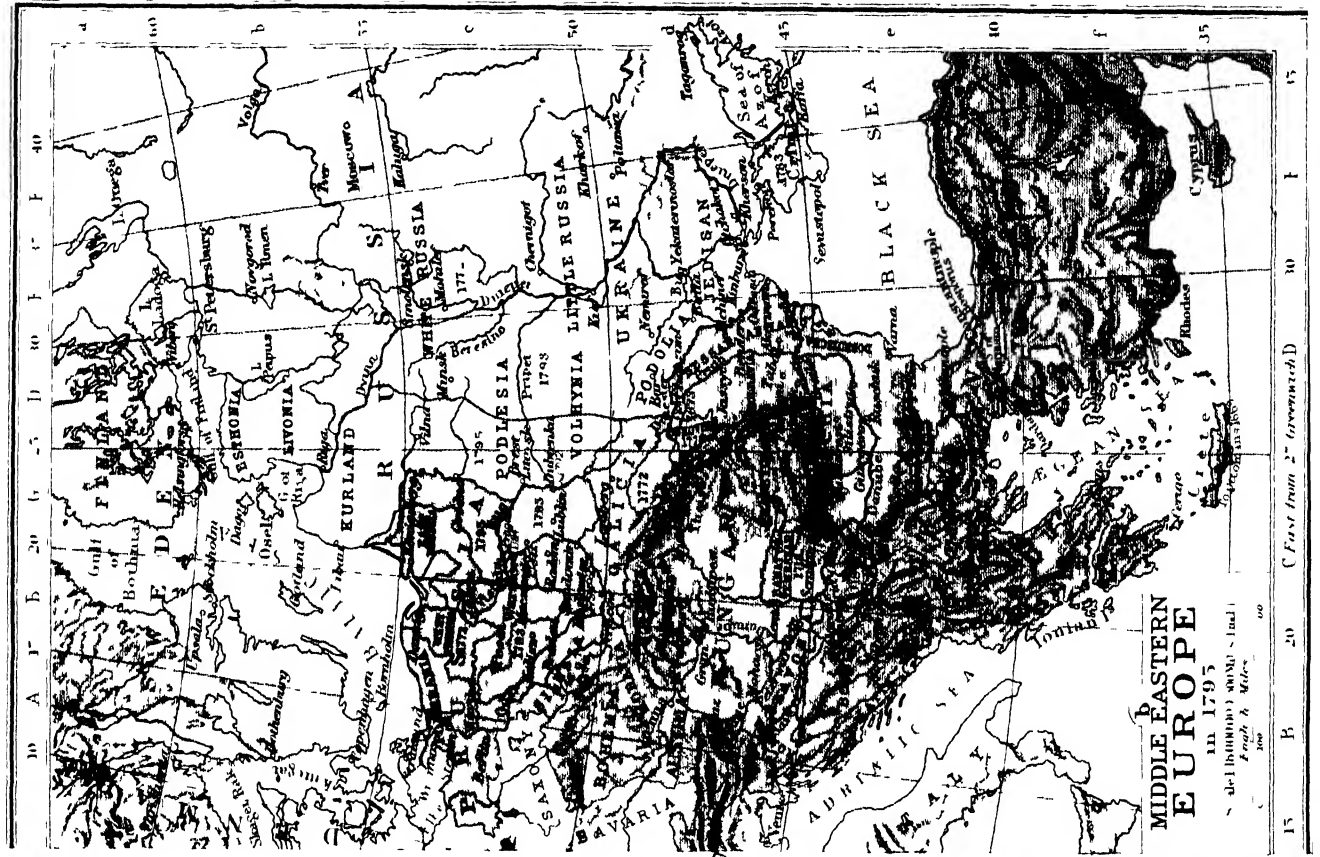


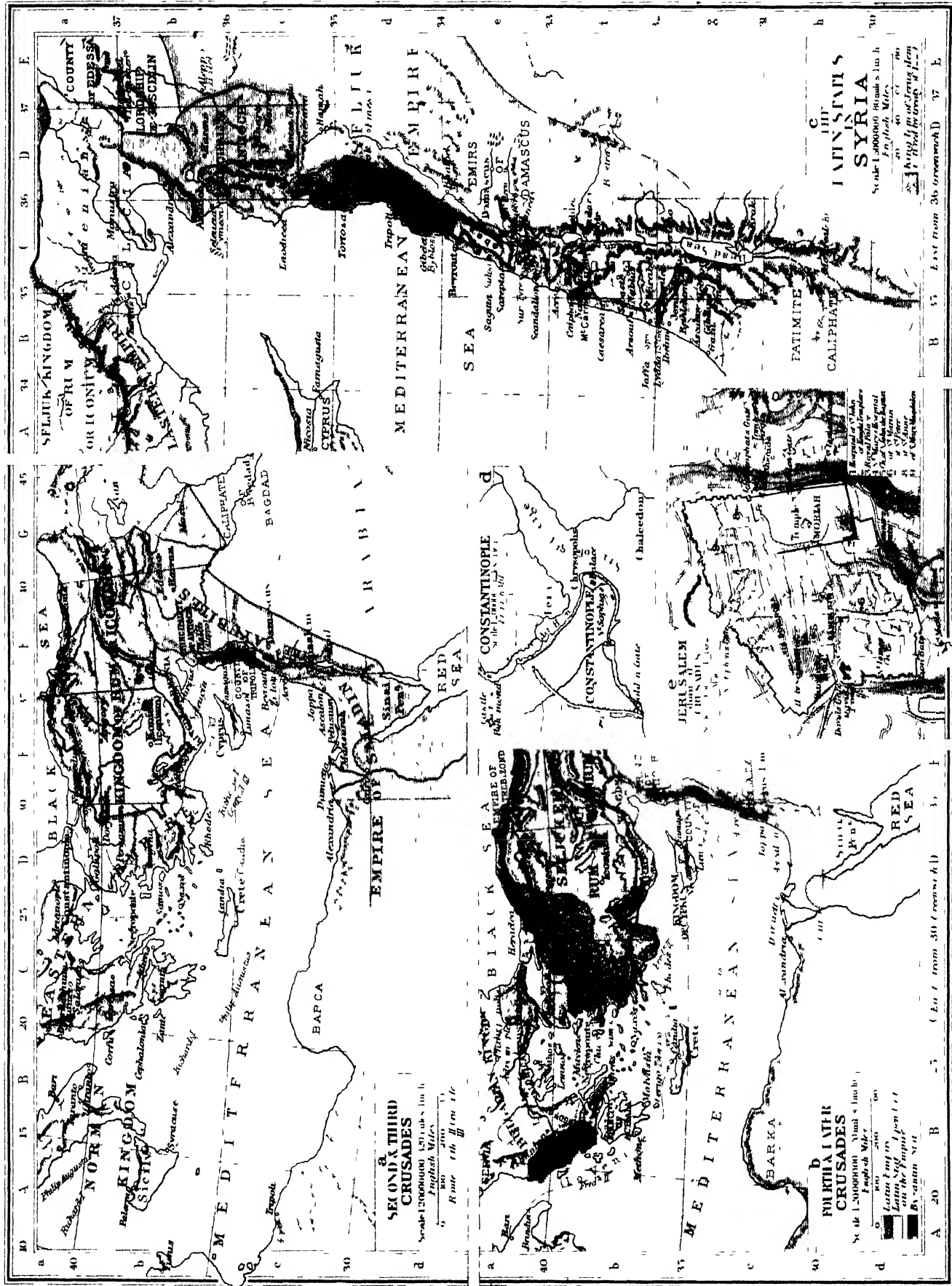


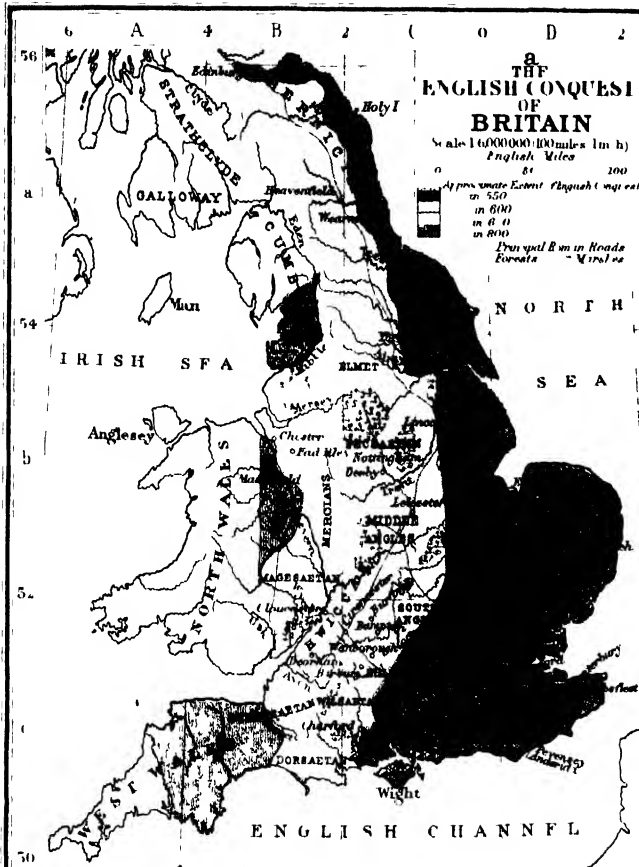










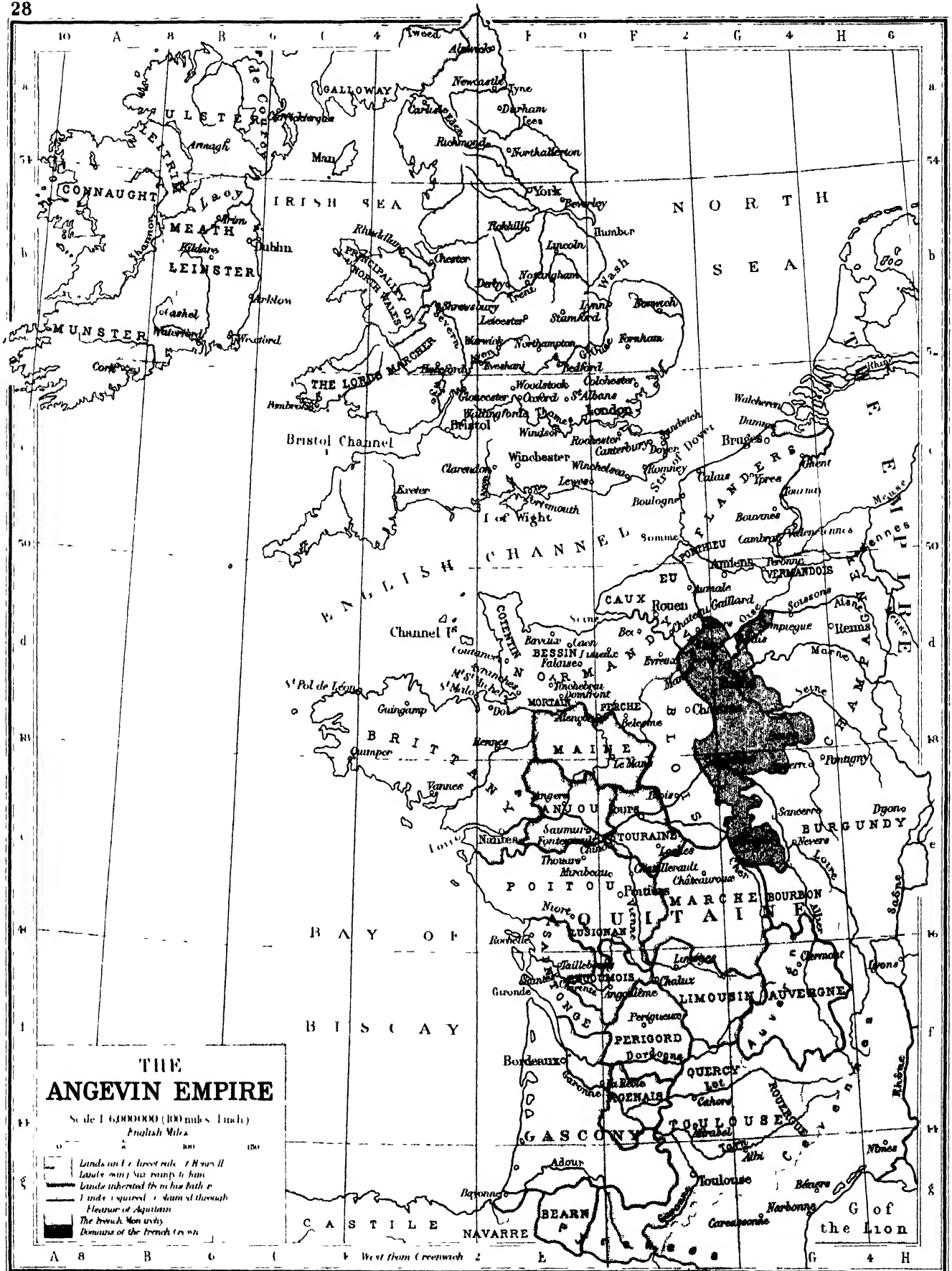


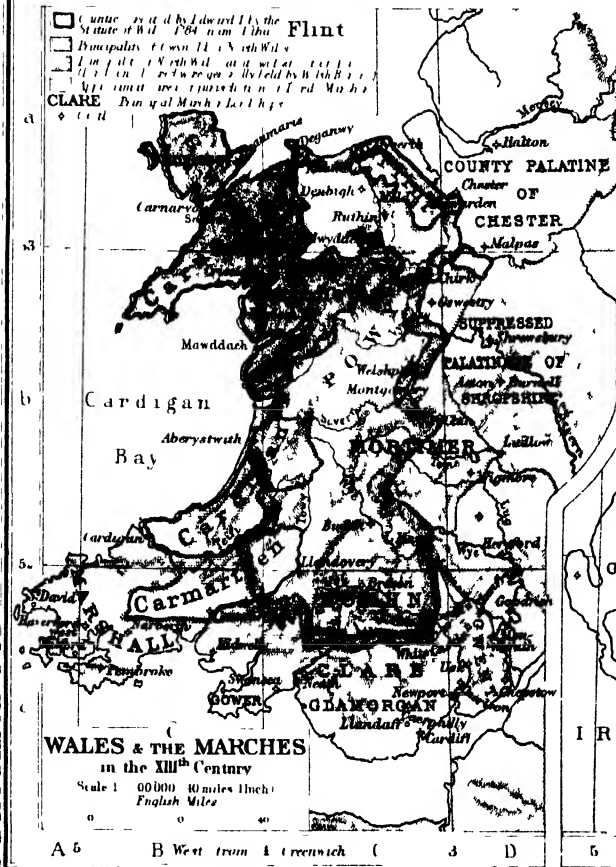
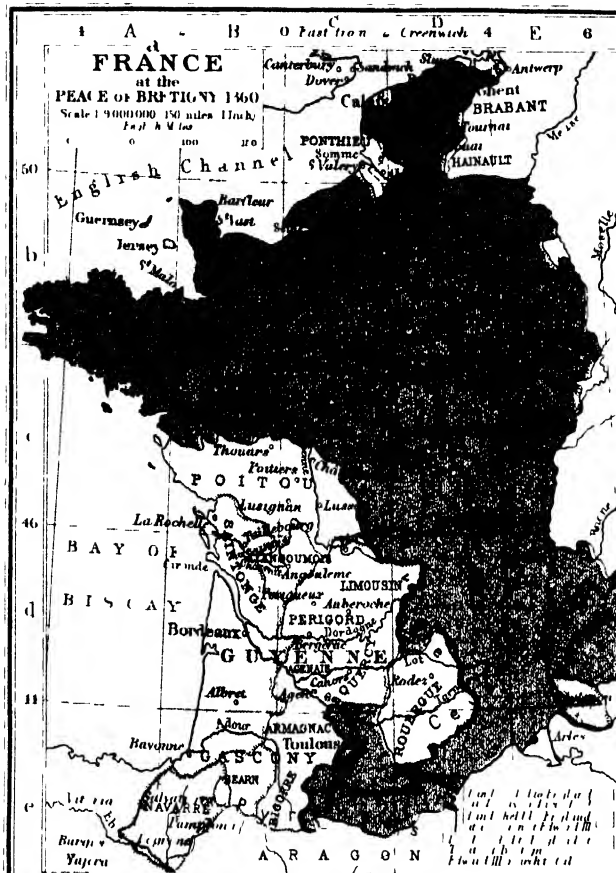
MEDIAEVAL ENGLAND & WALES

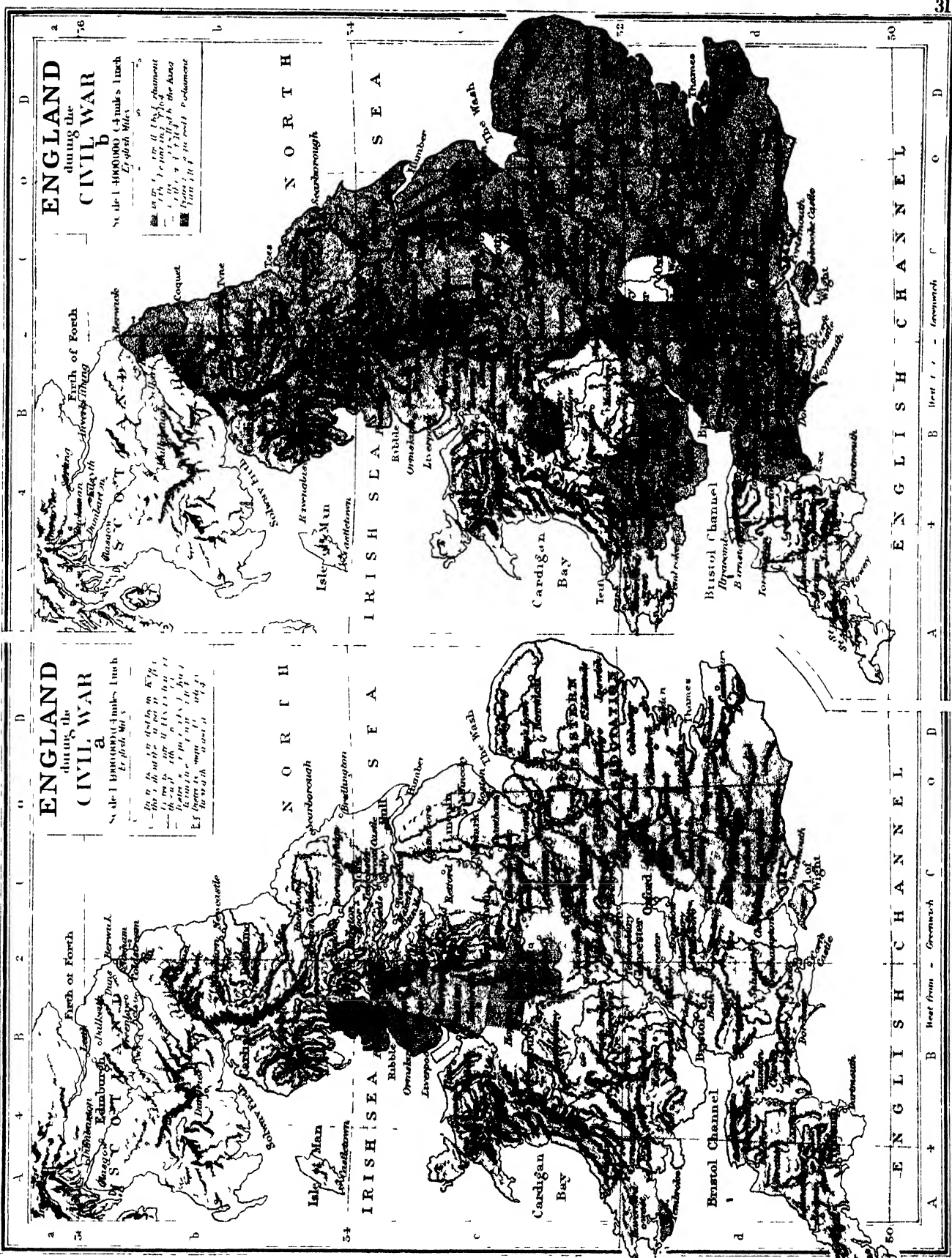
Scale 1:250,000 (10 miles 1 inch)
English Miles

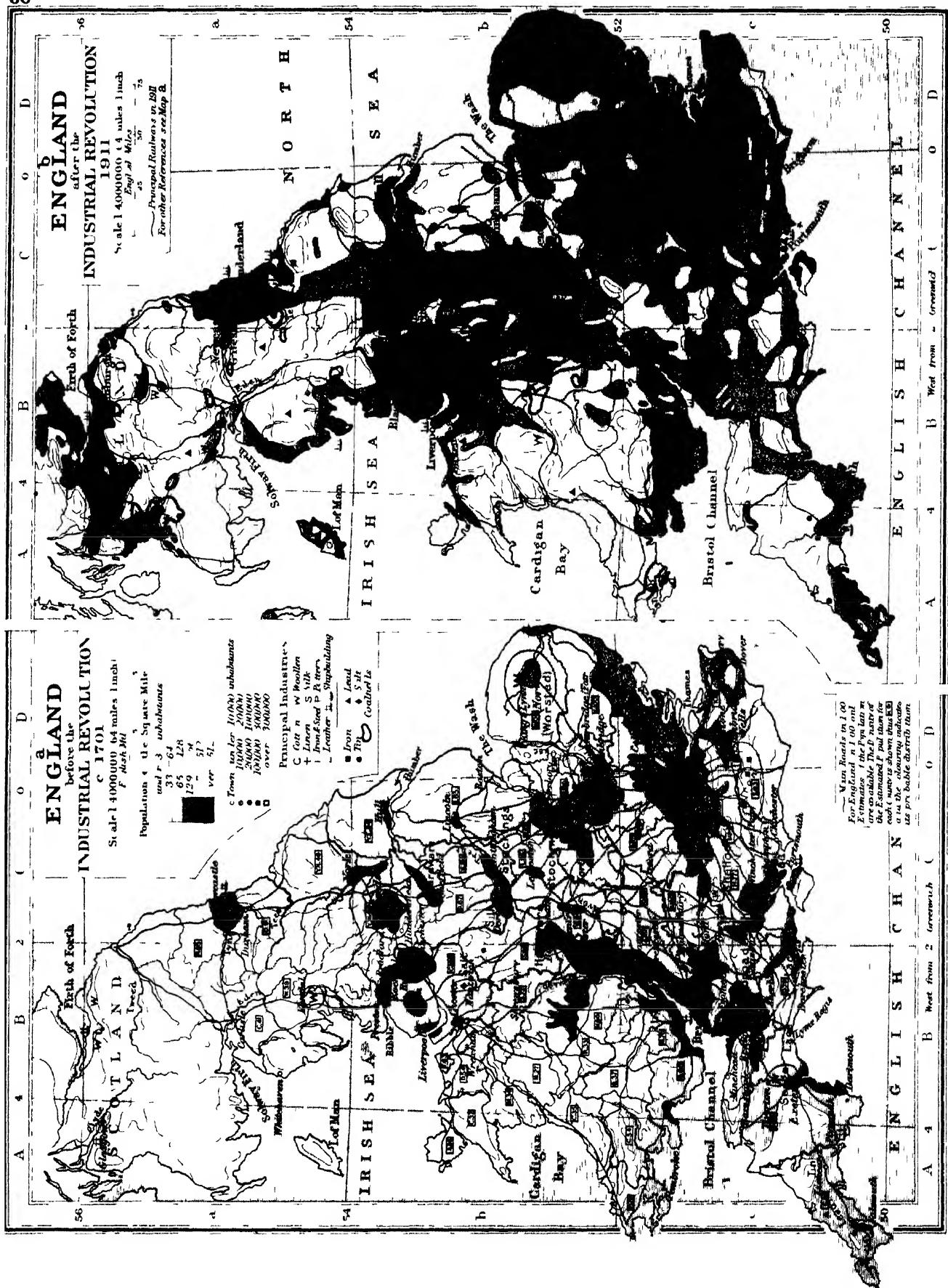
- Bishops retaining Members to Parliament
- Principal Castles
- Boroughs with Charters
- The Conque Ports are indicated in blue

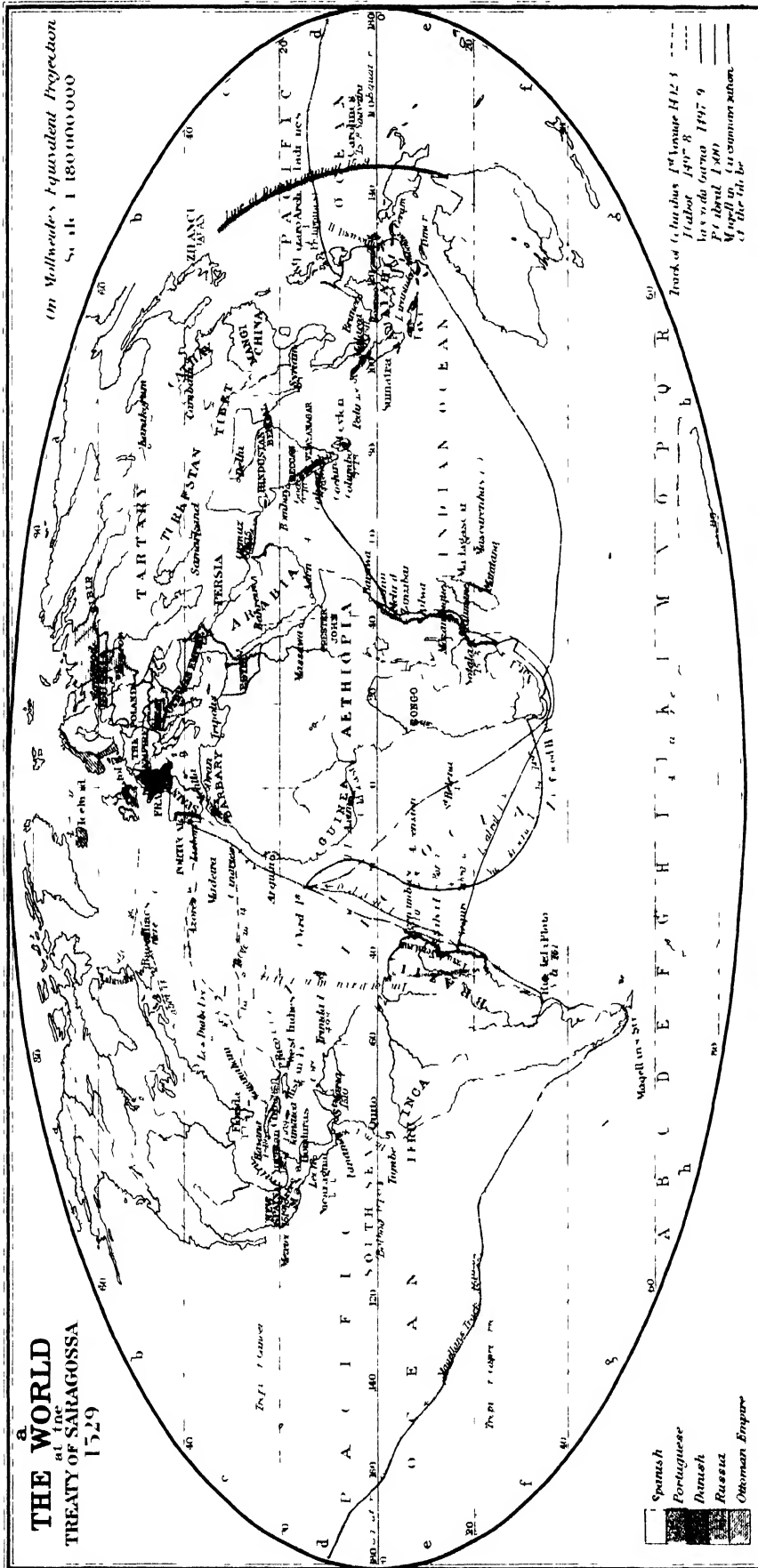


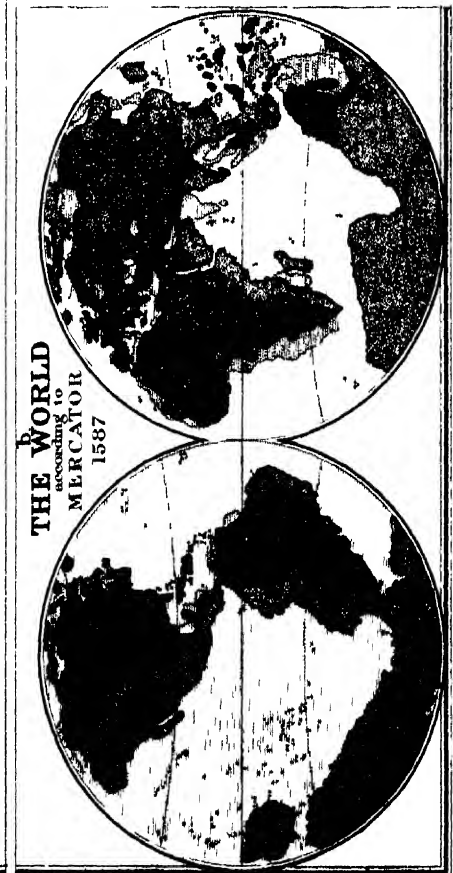
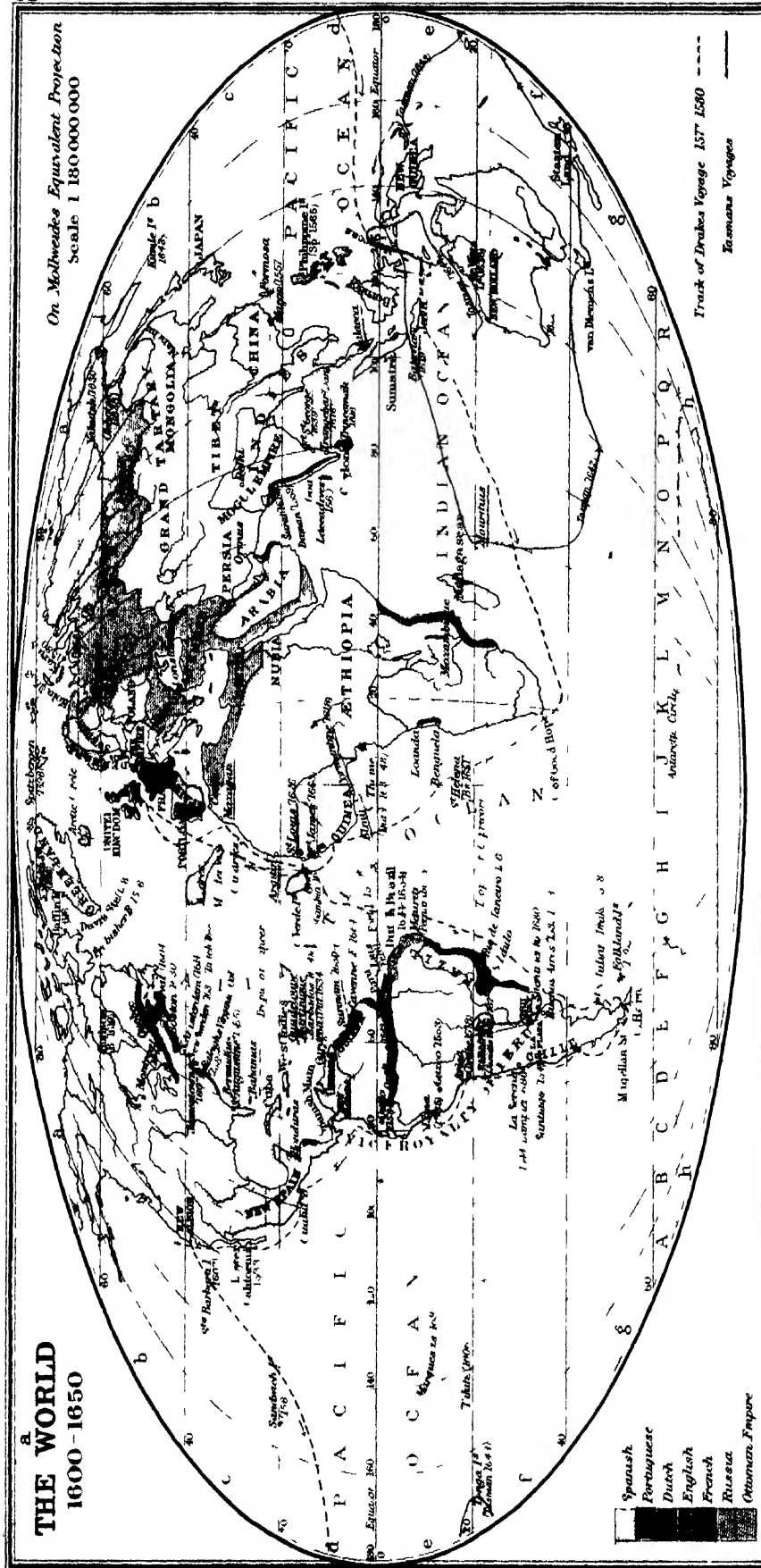


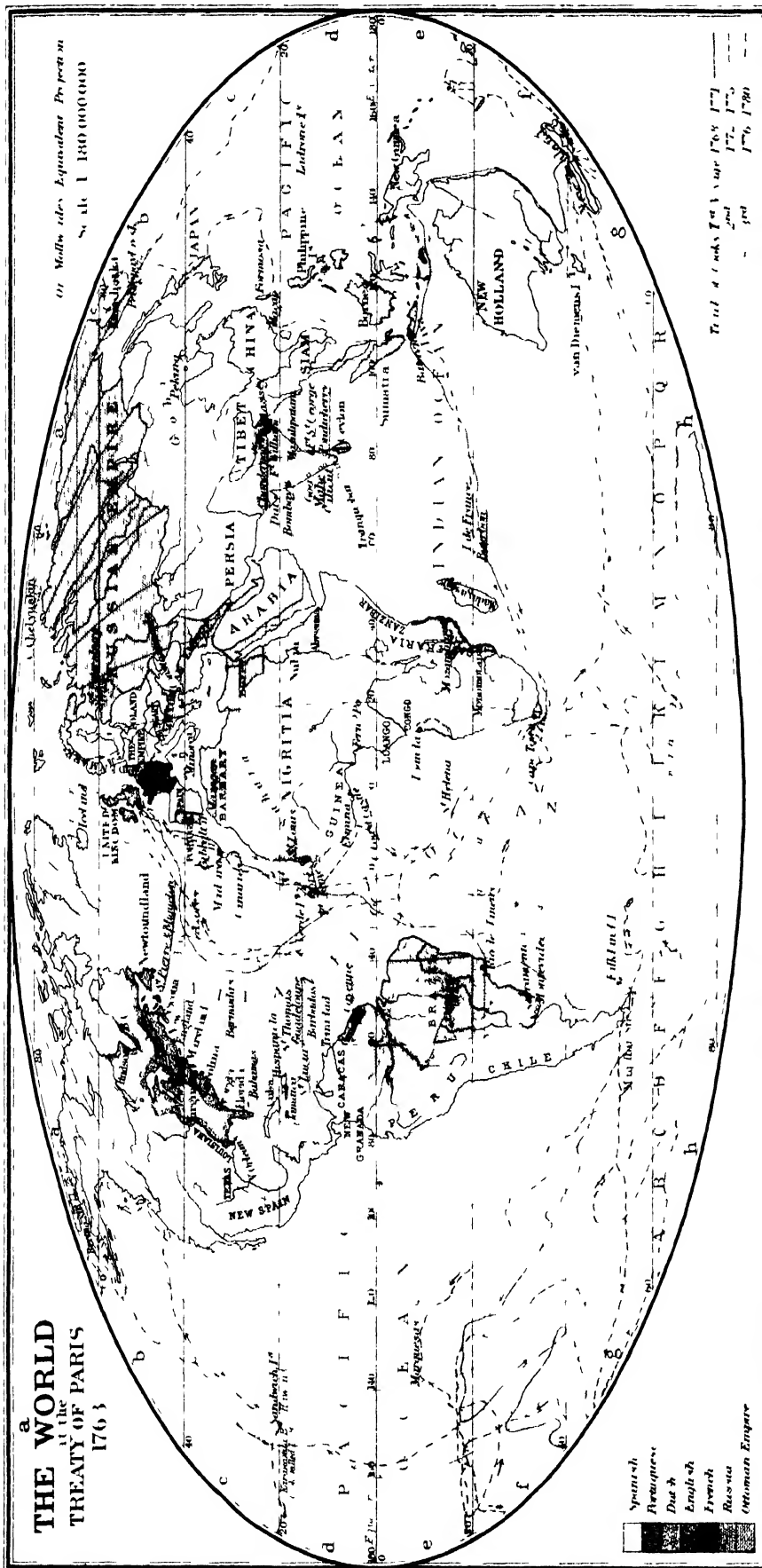




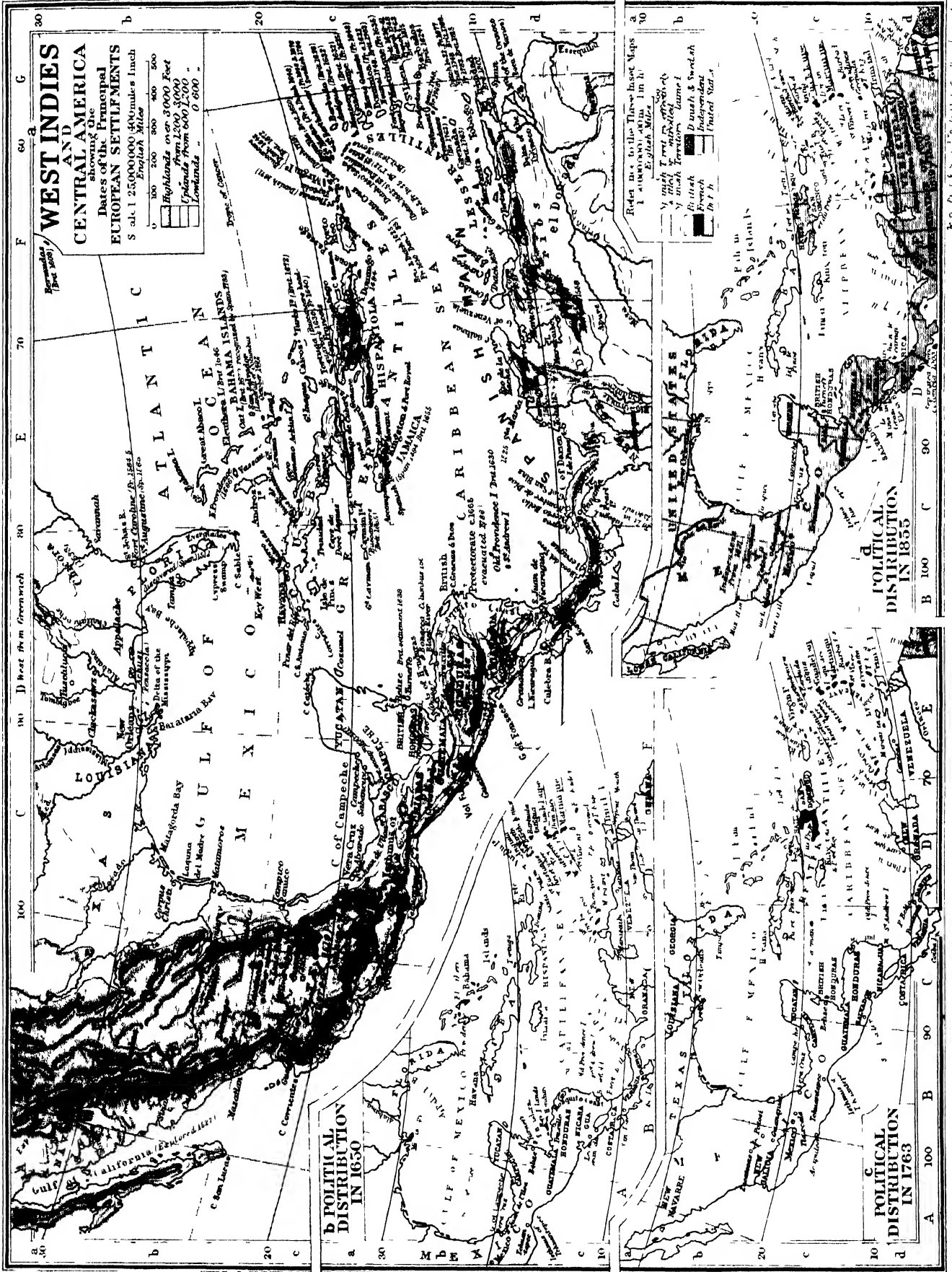


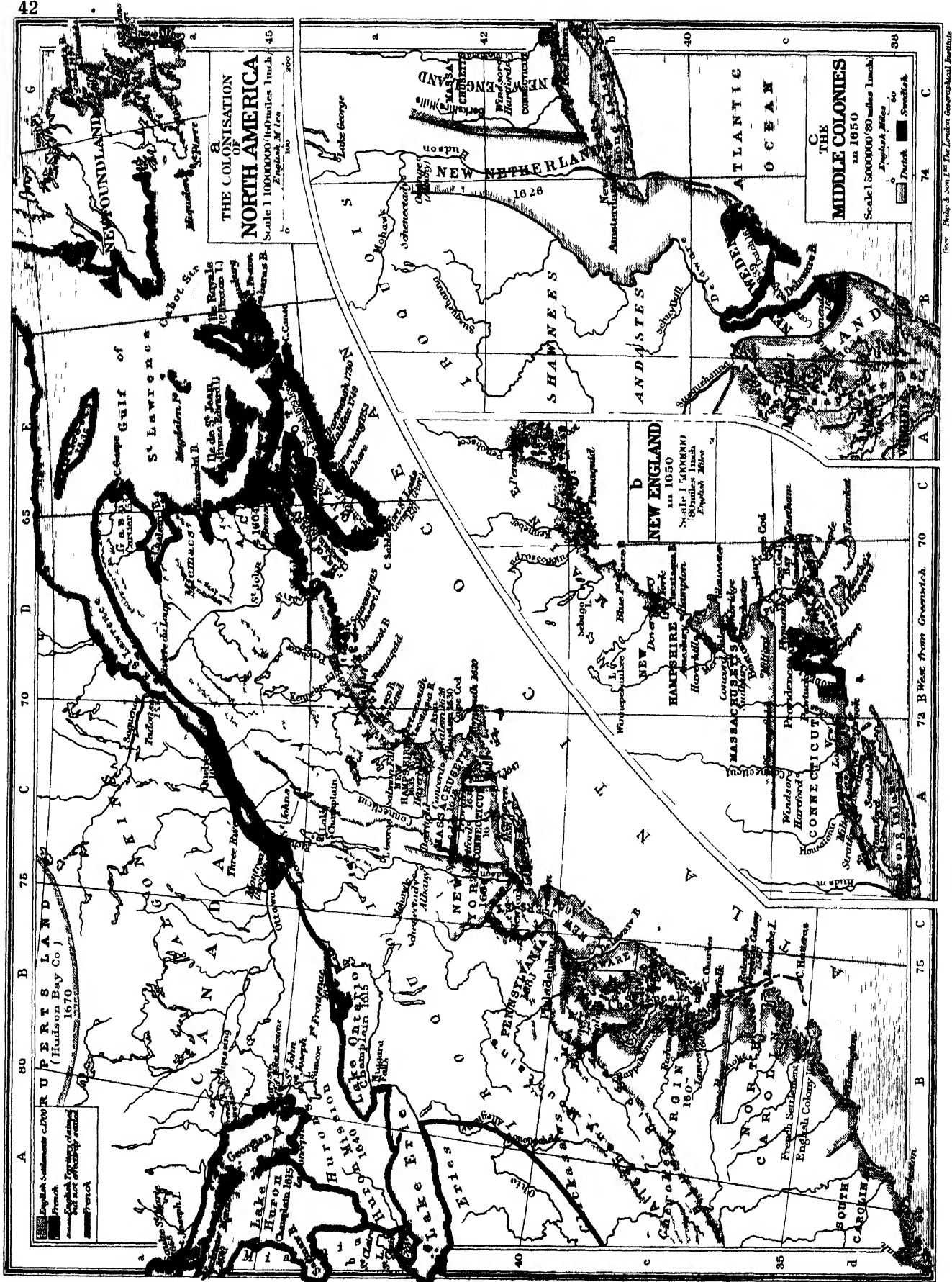


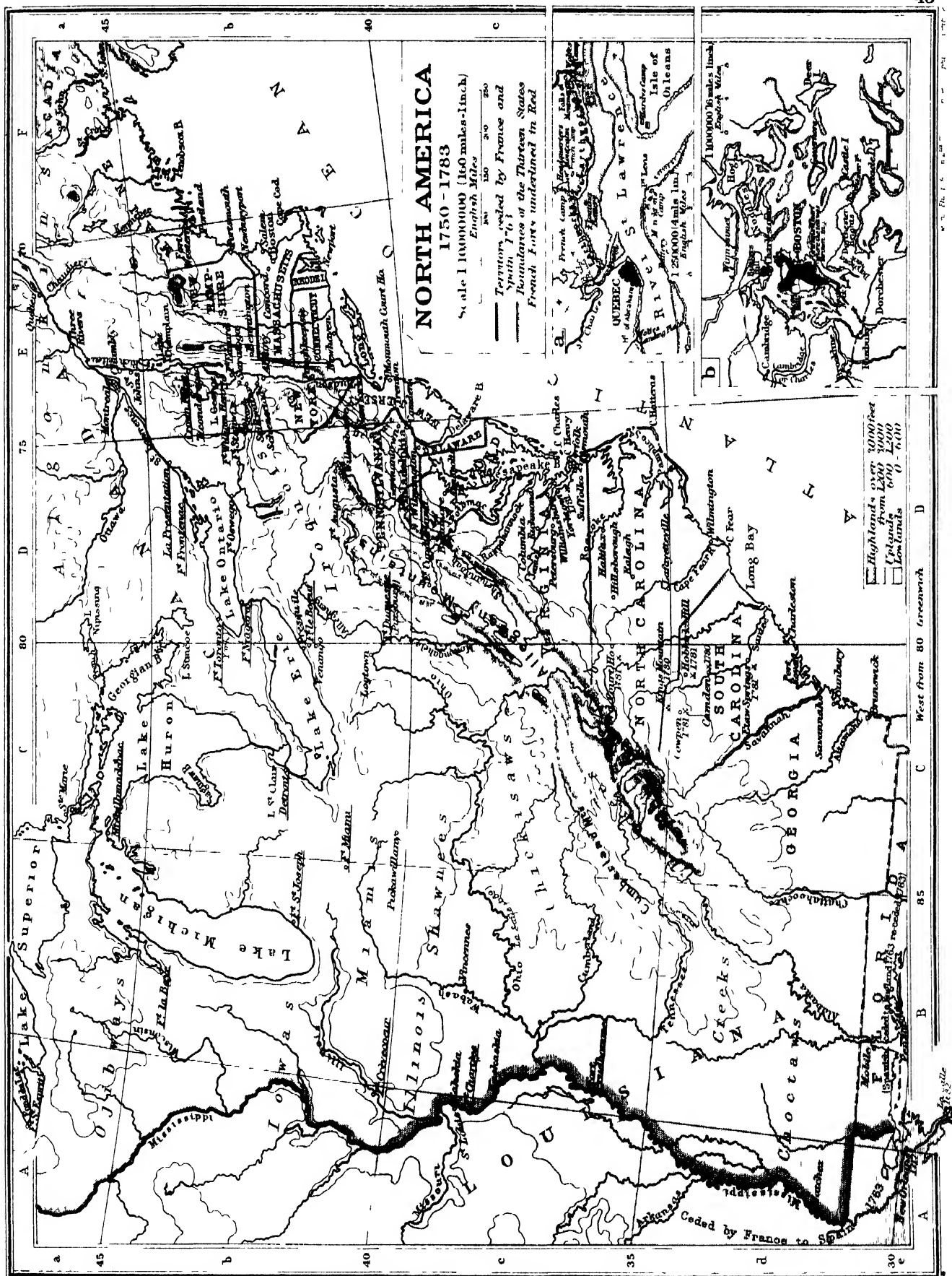








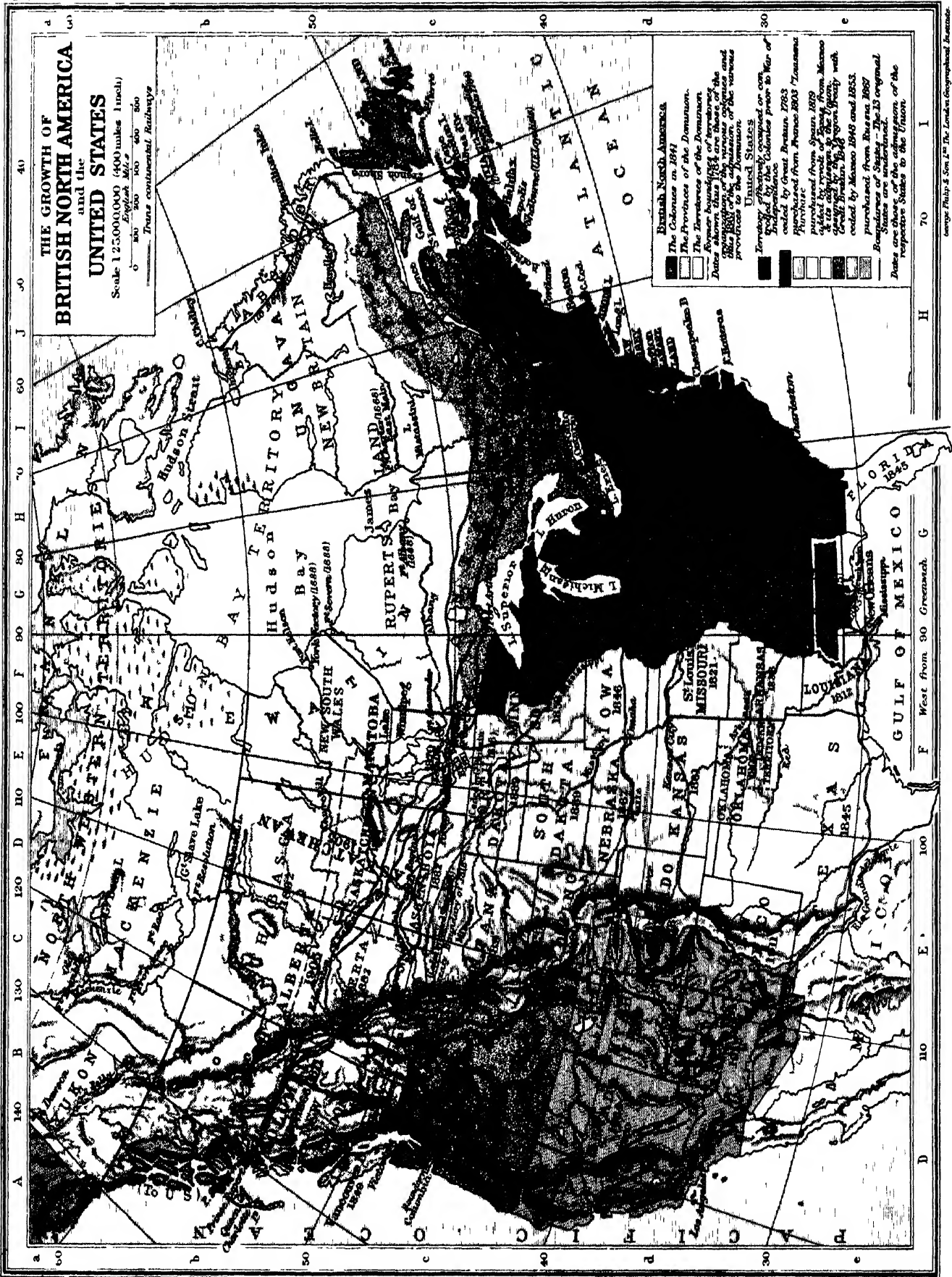


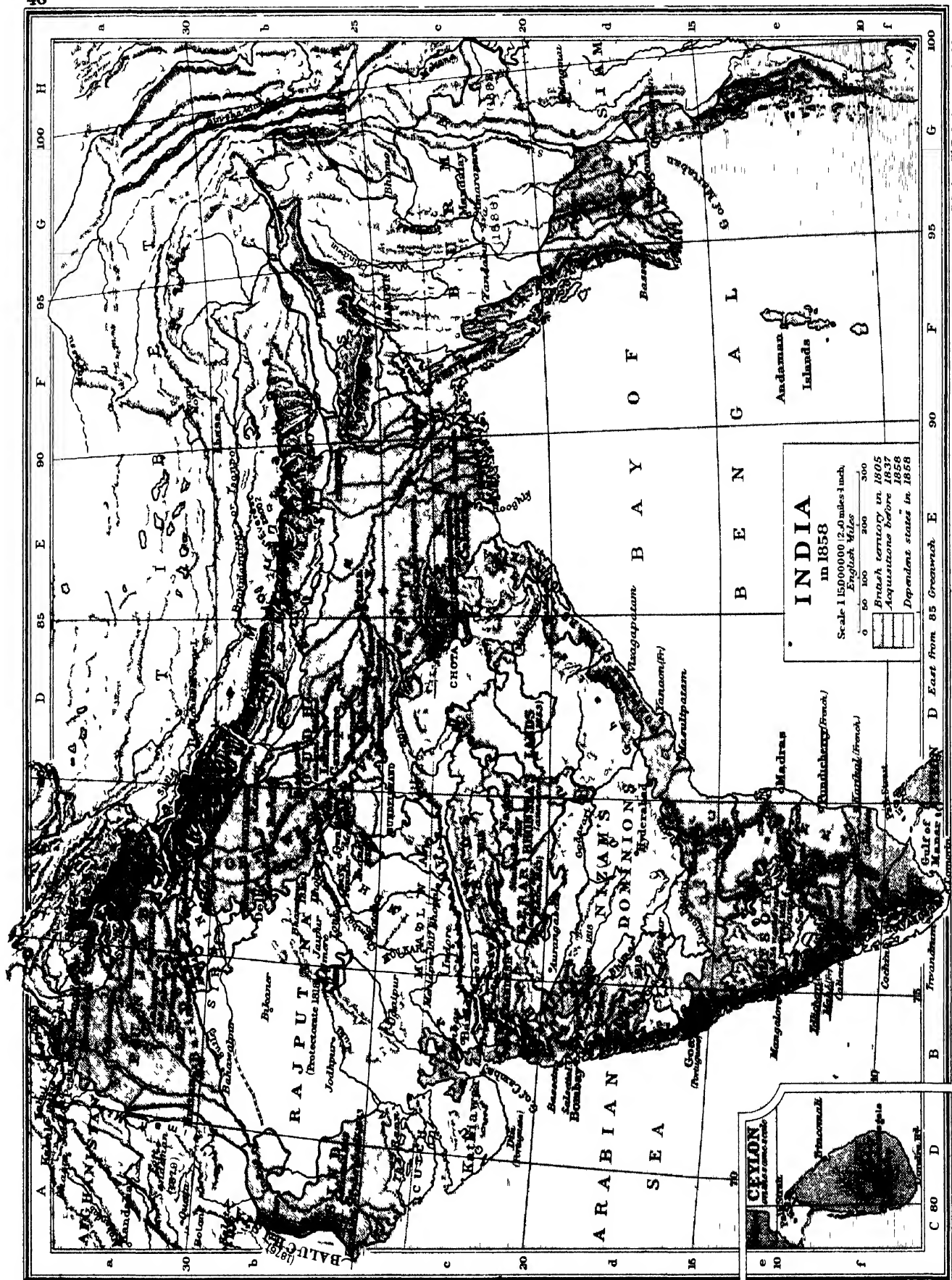


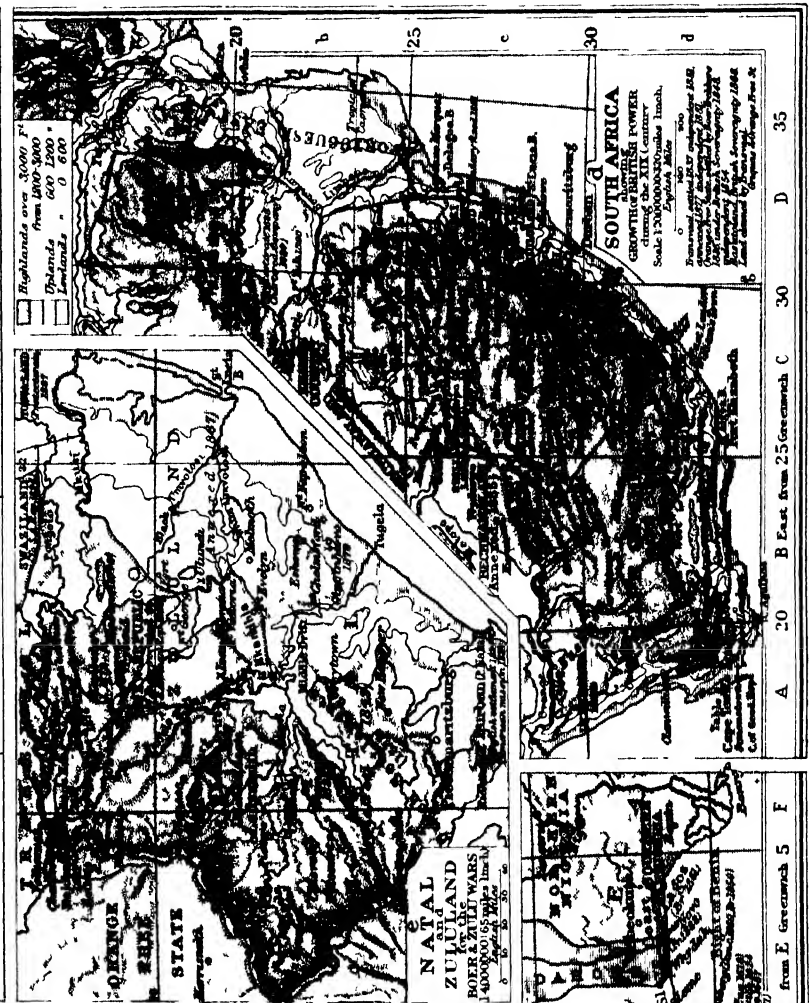
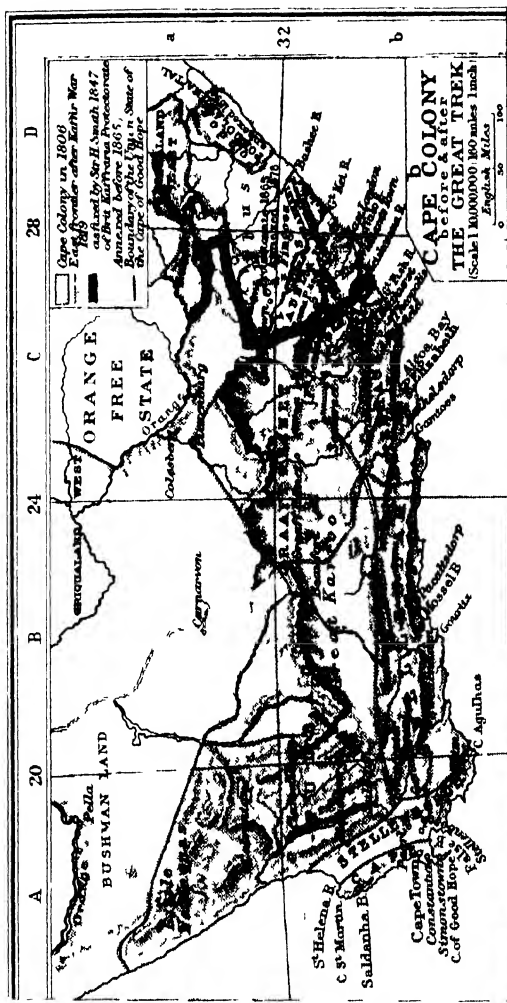
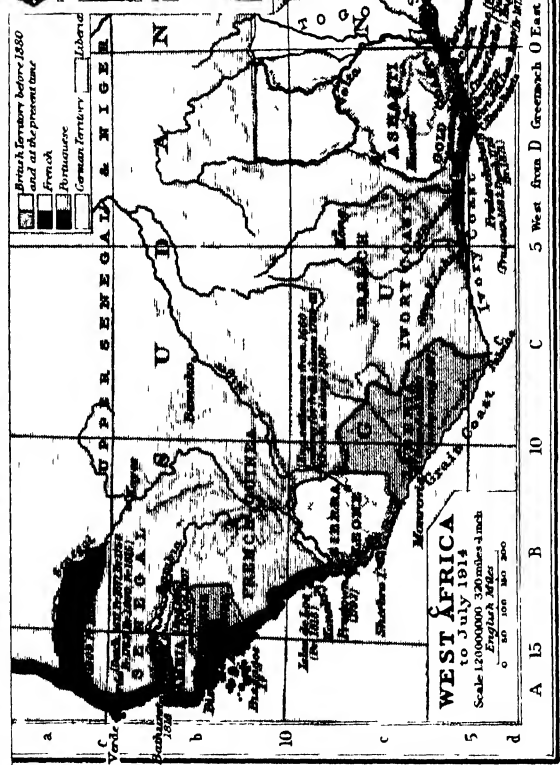
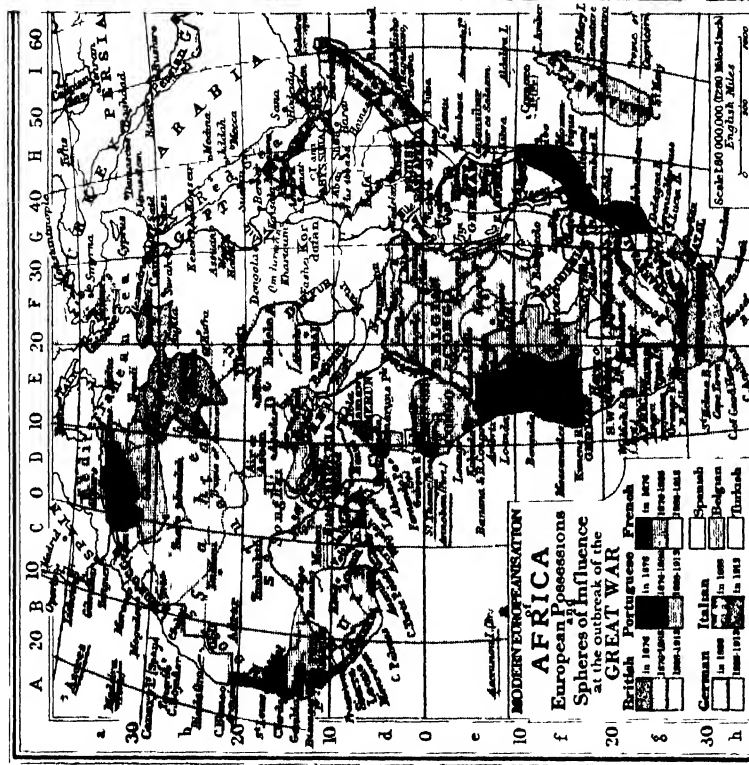
**THE GROWTH OF
BRITISH NORTH AMERICA
and the
UNITED STATES**

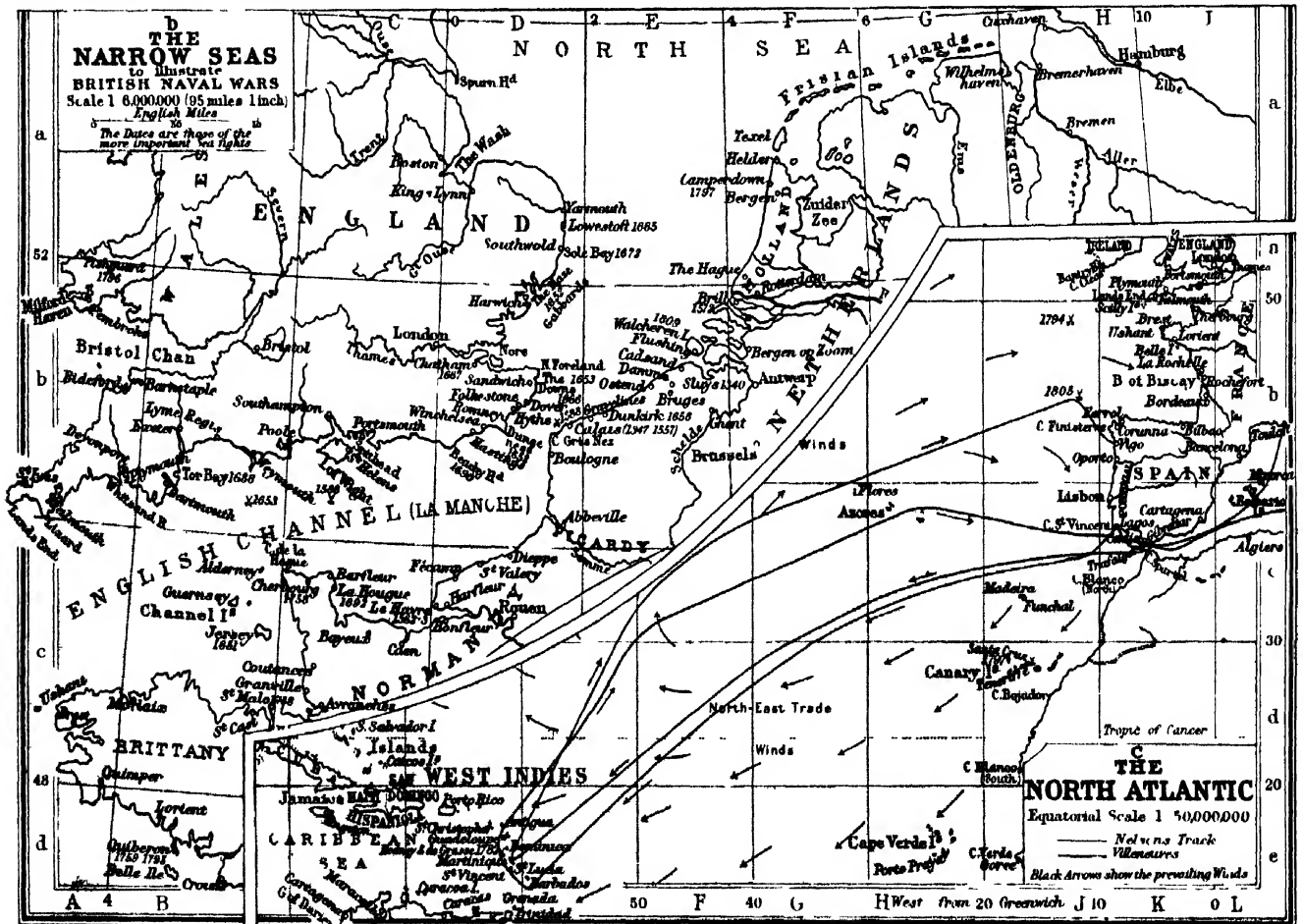
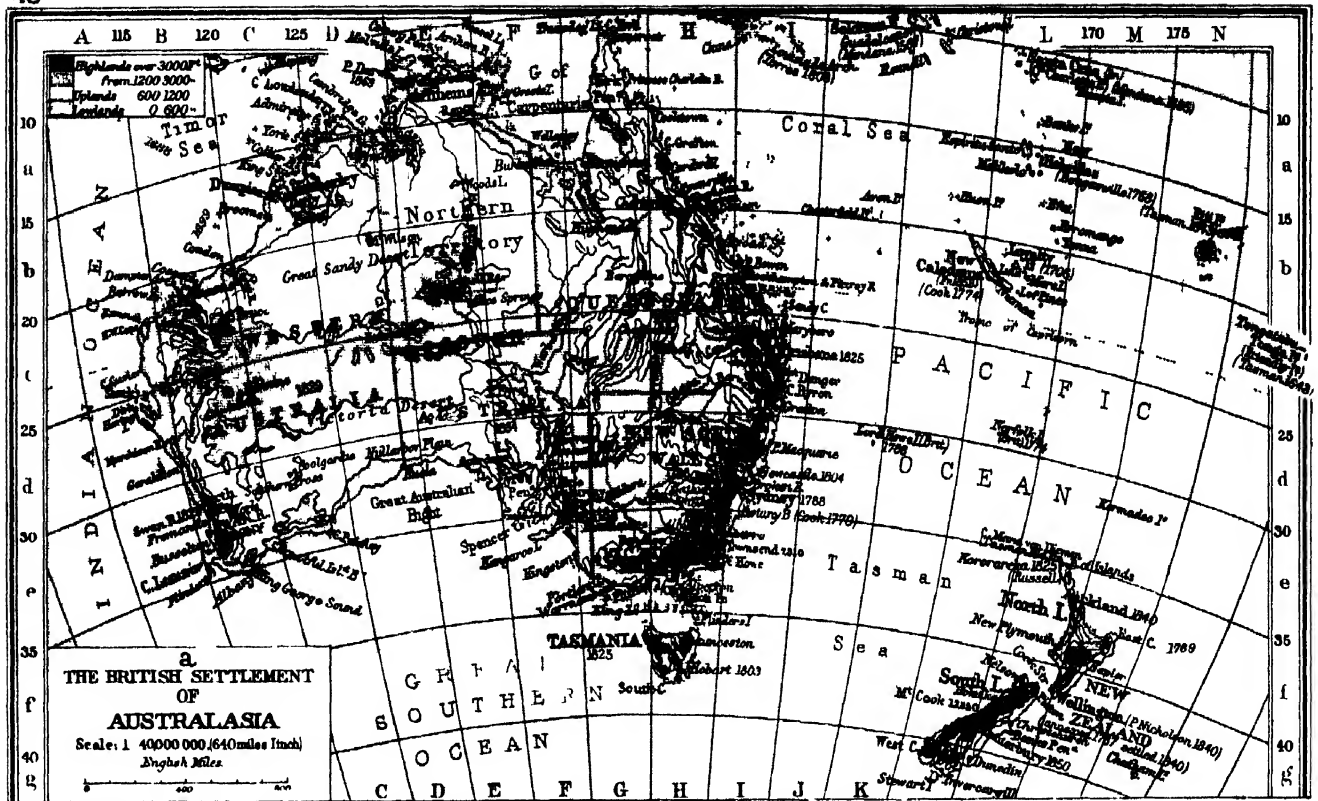
Scale 1 25,000,000 (400 miles 1 inch)

English Miles
0 100 200 300 400 500
Trans continental Railways









NEW SCHOOL ATLAS OF MODERN HISTORY

INDEX.

NOTE —Each Map in the Atlas is divided into Squares by the lines of latitude and longitude, and these Squares are indicated by Reference Letters in the map borders. These Reference Letters, following each name in the Index, indicate the Square, and the succeeding Numeral indicates the Number of the Map in which each place will be found. Thus —“Runnymede, Fe, 27,” shows that Runnymede will be found on Map 27, and in the Square indicated by the Reference Letters “Fe.”

